THE DEVELOPMENT OF PARTICIPATORY MANAGEMENT IN SUPERVISION: AN EVALUATIVE STUDY

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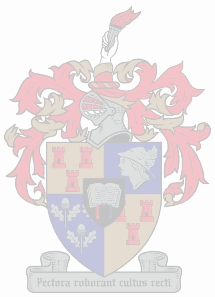

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D E C L A R A T I O N

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any University for a degree.

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ABSTRACT

The study is focussed on the evaluation of the development of participatory management in supervision. The motivation for the study was, firstly, the increasing transformation of supervision to a more managerial form whereby social workers are guided in the fulfilment of their professional obligations; secondly, that social workers and supervisors expressed an increasing desire and willingness to share the responsibility of managing direct practice through participation.

The research was conducted within the conceptual framework of developmental research. The investigation of the existing state of supervision was undertaken by means of a literature study, as well as a quantitative and qualitative survey among supervisors and their supervisees. This survey was also used to evaluate how developments in the theory and practice of participatory management was being brought into supervision.

The probability that participatory management would continue to be implemented and developed in practice is high, since it is bedded in a scientifically-sound conceptual basis derived from authoritative literature and empirical support.

Practising supervisors and supervisees can continue to apply participatory management in the ongoing reformation and restructuring of their management of direct practice. It could also contribute towards the improved quality of direct practice. The implementation of participatory management should go beyond organisational limits. It should extend to the profession's accountability to the wider client system, which should be made aware of changes in the approach to direct practice management in the form of greater participation between seniors and subordinates.

It is regarded as essential that participatory management approaches be subjected to tests to determine their efficacy, validity, and reliability as practice methods in supervision. Follow-up evaluation would help in the further development of participatory management in supervision. Further research with regard to participatory management is necessary with the view to maintaining its features in conformity with contemporary trends in the continuous reconceptualisation of management theory and practices.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie studie is 'n evaluering van die ontwikkeling van deelnemende bestuur in supervisie. Die motivering vir die studie was eerstens die toenemende ontwikkeling van supervisie tot 'n meer bestuursgerigte vorm wat maatskaplike werkers in die uitvoer van hulle professionele pligte rig; tweedens, dat maatskaplike werkers en supervisors 'n toenemende behoefte en bereidwilligheid te kenne gegee het om die verantwoordelikheid van praktykbestuur te deel.

Die navorsing is binne die konsepsuele raamwerk van ontwikkelingsnavorsing onderneem. Die huidige stand van supervisie is deur middel van 'n literatuurstudie ondersoek, asook deur 'n kwantitatiewe en kwalitatiewe opname onder supervisors en maatskaplike werkers. Hierdie opname is ook gebruik om te evalueer hoe ontwikkelinge in die teorie en praktyk van deelnemende bestuur by supervisie ingesluit word.

Deelnemende bestuur sal hoogs waarskynlik voortgaan om in die praktyk geïmplementeer en ontwikkel te word, aangesien dit op 'n wetenskaplik gesonde konsepsuele grondslag berus wat deur gesaghebbende literatuur en empiriese gegewens gerugsteun word.

Supervisors en maatskaplike werkers kan voortgaan om deelnemende bestuur te gebruik in die voortdurende verbetering en herstrukturering van die bestuur van hul praktyke. Deelnemende bestuur kan ook die gehalte van direkte dienslewering verbeter. Die implementering van deelnemende bestuur behoort nie deur organisatoriese grense ingeperk te word nie, maar behoort uitgebrei te word tot die beroep se aanspreeklikheid teenoor die breër kliëntestelsel deur bewusmaking van veranderinge in die benadering tot praktykbestuur in die vorm van groter deelname tussen seniors en ondergeskiktes.

Dit is noodsaaklik om benaderings tot deelnemende bestuur te toets om hul doeltreffendheid, geldigheid en betroubaarheid as praktykmetodes in supervisie te bepaal. Opvolg-evaluering sou 'n verdere bydrae tot die ontwikkeling van deelnemende bestuur in supervisie maak. Meer navorsing oor deelnemende bestuur is ook nodig om tred te hou met huidige tendense in die volgehoue herkonsepsualisering van bestuursteorie en -praktyke.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Efforts to improve the practice of social work have always focussed on both the recipient of its services and on the service provider. On the one hand, developments in the practice of social work have shown a pull away from the pathological tilt towards an emphasis on ecological factors that impinge on recipients; on the other hand, efforts have been intensified to re-evaluate the accountability of the profession, and find more effective ways of organisational management, funding of social programmes, organisational structuring, and appropriate staff participation in the management of direct service provision. An evaluation of the constructive, specific changes in the latter is the primary focus of the present research, particularly as far as the role of supervisors and supervisees is concerned.

The literature extensively discusses the complexity of the supervisory role in social work, highlighting the many significant revisions of that role that have taken place. For example, information and theory is available on the use of participatory management approaches by supervisors and supervisees in the practice setting.

The researcher has been engaged in the supervision of social workers between 1978 and 1990. During this experience he has at various agencies encountered supervision often accompanied by

strong moves on the part of supervisors and supervisees to encourage and exercise professional autonomy. Since then, much of the literature seemed to indicate an increasing desire for self- and participatory management for supervisors and supervisees. The present research is one attempt to evaluate the extent to which the practice and literature has been reconciled in this respect, and how participatory management has developed in supervision.

1.1 Motivation for selection of the field of study

The primary motivation for the study was to establish to what extent improved management of direct service was taking place through the synergistic process of the melding of material from two distinct professions - social work and management - into a greater unit. The latter process between the two professions of social work and management may be viewed as an example of the broader professionalising activity found in social work (Ables and Murphy 1981 : 343; Sarri 1985 : 343).

Whereas the social work literature (Barretta-Herman 1993 : 55-64; Rich 1993: 137-178) describe the management elements and tasks such as planning, organising, leading, and controlling associated with the supervisory role, Goldberg et al (1989:232) had claimed that the title of 'supervisor' had gradually dissappeared. As the result, the traditional supervisory tasks of imparting practice orientations, considering ethical and value issues, and helping workers towards a consciousness of self, no longer applied. For Hurlbert (1992 : 64), this change in the

supervisor's role and tasks further reflects the move towards more professionalisation in the practice of social work motivated by the need for more autonomy and self-growth for social workers. Earlier, Joubert (1988 : 5-7) had interpreted the assumption of more managerial functions by supervisors as the '...einde van 'n ideologie'.

It has furthermore become progressively necessary for supervisors and their supervisees to be more participative in the management of their work. The literature affirms that they had thus begun to assume participative roles in service delivery and management. They cite advantages for recipients and practitioners, such as: a more efficient and effective service to recipients; an acknowledgement by supervisors and supervisees of each other's professional autonomy; and a minimising of alienation, caused by statuses and stratification between them (Ables and Murphy 1981 : 12-17; Anthony 1978 : 127; Bamford 1982 : 89; Hurlbert 1992 : 64; and, Weekes 1987 : 266).

The investigation into the extent to which participation prevailed in practice, and the opinion of supervisors and supervisees on the concept of participation served as a further motivation for the study. To a large extent, their opinions and experiences validate the truism that the values of social work had for too long been subjugated by the dominant role of the employment agency and its infrastructure, and that a practice was moulded and developed that was flexible, creative, and fulfilling especially in the area of supervision. The present research

concurs that through participatory management, supervisors and supervisees are accorded due respect and dignity as individuals and professionals, while it remains particularly valuable to the human service agency, helping it to operate in a manner that leads to positive consequences for the clients served (Abels and Murphy 1981: 9; Bamford 1990 : xv).

The fact that contributions by the literature with regard to supervision are devoid of recent evaluations of the development of participatory management in supervision, served as a final motivation for the study.

1.2 Goal and objectives of the study

The goal of this study is to evaluate the extent to which participatory management has developed as an accredited mode of management in current supervisory structures.

The following objectives are set in order to reach the goal of the study :

(a) To establish the nature of supervision in current practice, and the professional characteristics of supervisors;

(b) To ascertain the role of management in current supervisory practice, with particular reference to the management practice of supervisors and supervisees, and significant practice difficulties associated with their managerial roles;

(c) To identify the characteristics of participatory management and its use within supervisory structure, and gauging the

extent to which it has developed as an accredited mode of management in supervision.

1.3 The importance of the study

The importance of the study is not to be judged in terms of its capacity as a validation of participatory management as the one best mode of management in current supervisory practice and thus as the panacea for solving the difficulties and shortcomings of supervisory systems. Rather the importance of the study is to be seen in the nature of the evaluative findings which issues from it and how they might be used for the improvement of participatory modes of management in supervision.

The gestaltist format of the study, reflecting not only its own wholeness but its inseparability from the associated environment of direct human service rendering, gives it an all important function at this time in the development of new approaches to social work supervision.

The study is evaluative in so far as it is intended as an achievement in the development of knowledge, which includes knowledge that is both sufficiently new to attract disciples, and sufficiently open-ended as to leave new questions to be asked and new problems to be solved. By this is meant that it is not intended to be rigid and inflexible in its conceptualisations and interpretations, but would be open to reinvestigation by way of other more extensive studies.

The evaluative study is nevertheless a contribution in the normative approach to reconstruct the supervisory component of social work administration in line with the profession's historical emphasis on the improvement of human social arrangements and individual effectiveness (Abels and Murphy 1981 : 9). It is also intended as a reflection of how, both theoretically and in practice, supervision has been influenced by the new era of constantly reducing hierarchical control to collaborative individualism for its main operators of supervisors and supervisees, from which advantages such as increased commitment , responsibility, and interest have been derived (Barretta-Herman 1993 : 58; Gummer 1991 : 121-137; Hurlbert 1992 : 67).

1.4 Research design and methodology

Since the methodological basis of any study depends on the research framework or paradigm chosen, it was considered essential that an appropriate one be chosen for the study. Such choice was facilitated by the fact that the study was inspired by the intent to evaluate the extent of practice changes that have taken place and how these could lead to the further development of such changes, which meant that action research would apply. This type corresponds with Mouton's (1989 : 20) paradigm research and departs from the traditional methodologies, such as phenomenological or positivistic paradigms (Batson 1983 : 2; Thomas 1985 : 605).

The general nature of social work is a natural habitat for action research more especially since it aids social work practitioners to expose their professional activities to scientific examination. This practical milieu thus provides opportunity for applied research and improved accountability by the profession (Thomas 1985 : 484).

As increasing attention by the literature is given to participatory management in supervision, it was considered in accordance with the goal of the study to explore the effectiveness of new developments in participatory management through developmental research (Barretta-Herman 1993 : 55-64). The latter would be characterised by its focus on the technical nature of participatory management and its capacity to aid the realisation of social work service delivery. It would involve the combination of empirically based research and practice knowledge in the development of management technology appropriate for supervisors and supervisees (Reid 1987 : 480).

As a first step in developmental research, and in accordance with Grinnel and Williams's (1990 : 150) self-explanatory perception of exploratory research, the study sought to initially '...build a foundation of general ideas and tentative theories which can be explored more rigorously later on'. The ideas proposed by this research must subsequently be reviewed by those involved in the practice of social work supervision to determine its appropriateness for supervisors and their supervisees. The research would also serve as a demonstration of the use of

participatory management for innovative change in supervision, and how it is the culmination of an integrative process of management, supervision , and treatment strategies by supervisees (Grasso 1992 : 188; Grassy 1993 : 22).

The initial formulation of new hypotheses represents an integral component of the study, one in which participatory management would be highlighted as a means of 'organisational structure', described by Thomas (1985 : 485) as a social technology which would aid the process of goal attainment, efficiency, and effectiveness in social work. Participatory management is thus described in terms of an arrangement of equitable power, authority, responsibility, and distribution of tasks among supervisors and supervisees.

Grinnel (1988 : 220) stresses that any division of the types of knowledge attained before and after research is totally arbitrary. It is further regarded as knowledge located on a continuum. Neither the level of knowledge one has before the research nor the level of knowledge one attains through research can be accurately assigned to discrete sections. It is therefore in the interests of clarity only that a sectional view of the continuum is given in the discussion of participatory management in the form of the phases of analysis and formulation of the **developmental** research of it (Reid 1987 : 480).

The analytic phase of the developmental research was launched to:

* conduct a literature research of supervision and

participatory management, discussed in sub-section 1.6.1 below;

* establish among a selected group of supervisors and supervisees the manner in which the use of participatory management applied in their supervisory practice; to also guage their insight into, and views on, its various practice features. Questionnaires (appendices A and B) were used for these purposes.

The formulative phase of the developmental research involved the careful evaluation of the data collected as the basis on which the conclusions about the validity, efficacy, and reliability of participatory management in supervision are drawn. This phase together with the analytic phase thus contributed to the evaluation of the overal use of participatory management and the prospects of its further development (Thomas 1987 : 383)

1.4.1 Literature review

Initially the subject catalogue of the J.S. Gericke Library in the University of Stellenbosch was examined in search of literature relevant to participatory management as an approach or in the form of practice models for supervisors and supervisees. The Human Sciences Research Council (1989) as the then accredited coordinating body for all officially recognised and recorded research in the country at the time, was subsequently approached in a continuation of this search. Fully updated computer printouts were provided by the Council.

During 1993, similar searches were made by the researcher in a study tour of the John Rylands Library of the University of Manchester, England, and the National Institute for Social Work, Tavistock, London. The data provided referred specifically to the situation in the United Kingdom with regard to the topic of research, much of which served as comparative data.

Further literature research therefore focussed on current management models and trends, and how these could be used in the evaluative study. Published texts, unofficial studies, unpublished dissertations, theses, journals, and other research material dealing with social work supervision were similarly examined and appropriately used in the study. This material was found in the libraries of the Universities of Cape Town, Western Cape, Stellenbosch, and Manchester, England, as well as those of a randomly selected number of practice agencies in the Cape.

1.4.2 Empirical study

Grinnel (1988 : 45) contends that '... a prevailing view of science, critical to the conception of social reseach, is that it must contain an empirical component'. This contention would imply that the research must rely on practical experience and observation in order to verify knowledge added to existing knowledge, and that conceptualisations by the literature alone would be insufficient. The evaluative study thus attempts to be consistent with both the scientific importance and practical correlation to be derived from empirical study (Epstein 1985 : 274).

Given the goal of the study to evaluate the development of participatory management in supervision, it was considered necessary to correlate the experiences of an appropriate number of supervisors and supervisees, in an empirical study, and use the logical conclusions induced in the process of the above theory development.

(1) Nature of the study

While supervision is already well conceptualised and theoretically systemised, it was regarded essential to conduct an empirical study among a predetermined group of supervisors and supervisees to obtain quantitative-descriptive as well as qualitative data regarding themselves and their practice. The data were sought by means of simple, descriptive questions contained in the questionnaires described in sub-section 1.5.2 (3) below and which evoked factual, measureable answers specific to the study group together with respondents' own perceptions of the research topic (Epstein 1985 : 185). Correlations and deductions were then made which, like the qualitative method, enhanced understanding of the practice of supervision among the study group. This approach also provided their points of view on, and insights into, both supervision and participatory management, as well as their professional interactions (Schuerman 1983 : 116).

Given the research context of participatory management in supervision, these data were ideally qualitative for inclusion in the evaluative study. Open-ended questions were included as

a means to evoke qualitative responses that would reflect the essential character of supervision, expressed in the points of view of the respondent supervisors and supervisees and the manner in which they interacted with each other in practice. The latter thus stressed the need to highlight the details of what happens instead of attempting to gauge the end result of those interactions (Schuerman 1983 : 107).

(2) Sampling

The sampling process in the study was a purposive one. It was initiated in 1989 with an approach to the then Cape Regional Welfare Board (CRWB) for information on all registered Family Welfare organisations in the Western Cape region. These organisations were to be asked for permission to conduct the empirical research among their staff.

The names of 74 organisations were provided by the CRWB. They included : The Catholic Welfare Bureau, SHAWCO, FAMSA, Communicare, Dulcie Howes Community Centre, Cape Flats Development Association (CAFDA), Cape Town City Mission, Janet Bournhill Institute, the various branches of the Diakonale Dienste, Bridgetown Welfare Organisation, the various branches of the Child and Family Welfare Society, USKOR, BABS, Afrikaanse Christelike Vroueverenigingˌ S.A.Council for Catholic Social Service, and Awendrus Welsynsvereniging. They all qualified for inclusion in the research since they were located in the following Western Cape centres that fell within the boundaries of the officially determined Western Cape Region, as stipulated

by the then Department of Posts and Telecommunications (1989): The Cape Peninsula, Lyndoch, Stellenbosch, Somerset West, Strand, Gordon's Bay, Kleinmond, Caledon, Hermanus, Gansbaai, Riviersonderend, Bonnievale, Ashton, Robertson, Worcester, De Doorns, Wolseley, Malmesbury, Atlantis, Melkbosstrand, Darling, Yzerfontein, Tulbach, Ceres, Koue Bokkeveld, Porterville, Moreesburg, Langebaan, Saldanha, Vredenburg, Piketberg, Veldrif, St.Helenabay, Eendekuil, Citrusdal, Redelinghuys, and Elandsbay.

A formal approach to the 74 identified organisations resulted in a 51% interest and willingness to allow their staff to participate in the research. The names of 40 supervisors and 166 social workers were obtained. The combined total (N=206) thus comprised the sub-universe, to which the research questionnaires were administered. Individual and group administration, as well as direct mailing techniques were used. Table 1.1 below shows details of the response rates obtained for supervisors and supervisees.

Table 1.1 The research sub-universe and sample

	Sub-universe		Sample (completed questionnaires)		
	No.	% of sub-universe	No.	% of sample	% of sub-universe
supervisors	40	19%	21	20%	53%
supervisees	166	81%	84	80%	51%
TOTAL	N=206	100%	N=105	100%	

The details in Table 1.1 above show that in the case of the supervisors and supervisees the response rates of more than 50%

for each group was favorable for research purposes. Similarly, the resultant sample of a total of 105 responses was 51% of the sub-universe. This sample was therefore regarded as sufficiently representative of the sub-universe.

The choice of a selected sample guided by knowledge of the universe was a conscious one based on the assumption that those units included in the sample are typical of the universe. The purposive sample therefore conformed to the requirements for conscious selection of a sample (Arkava and Lane 1983 : 159; Seaberg 1988 : 252-253).

(3) The questionnaires

In order to derive as wide and distinctive a perspective as possible from the information that was to be provided by supervisors and supervisees, a questionnaire was compiled that could be used and adapted for each group. Examples of these are attached as Appendices A and B. Each questionnaire sought data about the respondent's participation in, and views on, **supervision** and **management.**

Although differing appropriately in focus on the basis of their different roles , questionnaire 1 (supervisors) and questionnaire 2 (supervisees) comprised similar questions which sought the following data:

Question 1 - The respondent's own definition of supervision.

Question 2-3 - The respondent's perception of common ways

whereby supervision might achieve its goals.

Question 4 - The respondent's involvement in the achievement of those goals in his/her own practice.

Questions 5-6 - The way in which the respondent would range, from 'most prominent' to 'least prominent', a selected list of various positive and negative aspects of supervision highlighted by the literature.

Questions 7-8 - The levels of knowledge, experience, and training of the respondent.

Questions 9-13 - How the respondent's own practice setting conformed to expected personal qualities of supervisors and common beliefs about the preferred practice of supervision.

Question 14 - The respondent's particular organisational setting regarded by the literature as inclusive of organisational characteristics and climate and which have a bearing on how supervision is able to function.

Question 15 - The degree to which managerial functions, confirmed by the literature as commonly practiced, applied in the respondent's situation.

Questions 16-20- The respondent's opinions on, and knowledge and use of, management practice in his/her own work situation, including participatory approaches.

Question 21 - Concluding remarks by the respondent.

The questions were a blend of open-ended and closed ones, used according to the data sought. They were also structured in a way that was considered appropriate to avoid evoking responses that might have been biased.

(4) Data analysis

It was anticipated that the results of the empirical study would be as much affected by the procedures used to analise them as they were by the methods of collecting the data. The data analysis nevertheless attempted to be consistent with the objectives of the study, the research design, the level of measurement of the data, and the rationale for the use of the selected statistical tests. Statistical procedures included frequency distributions numerically represented in Tables or Figures to elaborate the process of data analysis.

Although discussed at greater length in the apppropriate sections of the evaluative study, suffice to state here that the majority of comments and remarks given by respondents in answer to question 21 of the questionnaire clearly showed the following:

* They were keenly interested in the goal of the study especially in so far as it was prompted by the need to evaluate current supervisory practice;
* They were concerned about the current state of the practice of supervision;

* They generally had practiced participatory management in variously systemised ways.

The good standard of the general responses in the empirical study qualified well for inclusion in the evaluative study. The views expressed were regarded as primary contributions since the respondent social workers and supervisors were indeed the group of practitioners who were directly engaged in the development of participatory management in supervision .

It is suggested that the process of hybridisation of the literature on supervision and management, and the empirical data analysis of this study, produced new data that would serve well to contribute to the further development of participatory management in supervision.

1.6 Presentation of the material

The evaluation of the development of participatory management in supervision is presented as a synthesis of the literature research and the empirical findings. In this respect, the literature and the findings of the empirical study are presented together. Whereas each of these sources are given separate emphasis in the various parts of the discussion, an attempt has been made to integrate them as appropriately as possible.

Chapter 1 is introductory, and includes a description of the research methodology which comprises the final evaluation of participatory management in supervision. As a backdrop to the

main focus of the study, Chapter 2 sketches in broad terms the use of different approaches in supervision as currently applied, with equal reference to significant opposing views about their continued use. Suggestions pertinent to the incorporation of management strategies in supervision feature here too. Since much of the practice of supervision is directly linked to the competencies and attitudes of supervisors, Chapter 3 firstly gives an account of the ethical basis on which they operate, followed by an evaluation of their professional makeup and its effects on the practice, and further evaluated in Chapter 4 on the basis of the current management practices of supervisors and supervisees. The discussion includes a description and analysis of difficulties experienced by both professionals, and the prospects of a further development of the participatory form of management generally used.

The primary evaluative focus on participatory management in supervision is taken up in Chapters 5 to 10, whereby the discussion begins with the theoretical nature of participatory management and its particular relevance to supervisory practice. This is systematically followed by the description of the various components of participatory management in relation to supervision; the concept of participatory management as a component in supervision theory and practice; the perspectives of participatory management; contingency and situational theories; participatory decision-making; behavioral science; management science; the conditions, limitations and barriers that could impede the application of participatory management; and,

the operationalisation of participatory management through the processes of **planning, organising, leading, controlling, education,** and **support.** The evaluative study is concluded in Chapter 11, in which relevant recommendations are also made. A Bibliography and appropriate Appendices are attached for reference purposes.

CHAPTER 2

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PRACTICE OF SUPERVISION

2.1 Introduction

Supervision has become an integral part of the profession of social work, and in the process has acquired its own distinctive characteristics, like the working relationship between supervisors and their supervisees, and the difficulties of professional recognition for supervisees that emanate from that relationship. These are some of the positive and negative characteristics of supervision. There are several dimensions to these characteristics, each of which play a particular role in the general practice of supervision. Much has been, and continues to be, written about it albeit often divergent.

In this chapter, the theoretical aspects of supervision are portrayed in the light of contemporary writings as well as that of the empirical experiences of those actually engaged in it. The description and interpretation of some negative aspects of supervision relate to its general application and therefore does not attempt to disparage any particular specialist field in which it might be used to lesser effect than in others.

Supervision has developed into a specialist supplement to the social work methods of casework, groupwork, and community work, and is composed of several interlinking aspects. The discussion

that follows here regards all those commonly practiced aspects as an integral whole.

The experiences of supervisors and supervisees are, on the one hand, used to evaluate the theoretical bases of supervision and to validate the notion that supervision is a comprehensive and supportive element to the practice of social work. On the other hand, those experiences and perceptions of supervisors and supervisees are used to highlight the need for a continuation of the processes of change which have always been taking place in supervision.

2.2 Definition of supervision

Rich (1993 : 137) holds that there is no single definition of supervision, a situation caused mainly by a proliferation of incoherent knowledge surrounding it. Nonetheless, writers like Austin (1981 : 65-69), Kadushin (1992 i : 7), Munson (1983 : 3), and Toren (1972 : 68-69) have produced definitions of supervision that may be taken as a unanimous description of supervision as a service in the context of a positive relationship between supervisors and supervisees. These definitions are comprehensive in that they also highlight important functional elements of supervision. For example, Kadushin (1985 : 24) had earlier seen supervision as the work of a supervisor having to '...direct, coordinate, enhance, and evaluate the on-the-job performance of the supervisee for whose work he is held accountable'. These elements are commonly known as administrative, educational, or supportive in nature, the

latter referred to by Munson (1983 : 3) as the helping function of the supervisor.

However, the Dictionary of Social Work ignores the supportive or helping function in its definition, alluding specifically to supervision as an administrative and educative process used by social agencies as a helping service to social workers requiring further development and refinement of their skills in order to provide 'quality assurance' for their clients (Barker 1987 : 160-161). This limited interpretation of supervision is not well supported by the literature throughout which there is ample discussion of the relevance of the supportive function of supervision (Kadushin 1985 : 21-22; 227; 225-226; 231; 264-273; Kadushin 1992 i : 225-292; Kadushin 1992 ii : 9-27; Munson 1983 : 28).

In addition, this same literature lays particular stress on the requirement that supervision ought to involve a clear exercise by supervisors of specific responsibilities and functions. Further, that supervision should not imply that supervisors need merely have the capacity to maintain a birds-eye view of the work of supervisees, but that it comprises specific components. These are authority, accountability of the worker and supervisor, context of practice, and the basic aims of supervision to deliver a better service to the client while simultaneously helping the supervisee to develop as a professional (Cronje 1986 : 225; Kadushin 1985 : 140; Kadushin 1992 i : 32-33, 81-84, and 211-213; Middleman and Rhodes 1985 : 39).

Several other denominators are ascribed to supervision to which the literature makes frequent reference as fundamental to it (Kadushin 1985 : 23-81; Kadushin 1992 i : 18-22; Kadushin 1992 ii : 10-23; Munson 1983 : 3-6). In summary form, supervision is seen as being:

* a process;
* a vehicle for a mutual relationship between supervisors and supervisees;
* facilitative of personal and professional growth in supervisees;
* a means whereby a senior guides a junior;
* a way of ensuring that the worker does the right work;
* an attempt to ensure good management;
* facilitative of the development of competency for subordinate staff (supervisees);
* a means whereby supervisors have general oversight over the work done by supervisees;
* capable of effecting the transfer of knowledge;
* an opportunity for the supervisees' progressive independence for decision-making, although joint decision-making is not entirely ruled out ;
* a means of guidance and support used by empowered individuals (supervisors) over less competent persons (supervisees).

These characteristics clearly demonstrate significant perceptions of supervision. They also allude to, and support, the discussion of several long-held notions of it. Kadushin's (1985 : 250-254)

and Munson's (1983 : 2-4) views, for example, seem to coincide in terms of the following features that further reflect the nature of supervision :

* The supervisory relationship is a distinct dichotomy of roles between supervisors and supervisees;
* Supervisors' knowledge, experience, and role status are greater than their supervisees, and therefore grants them greater empowerment than that of supervisees;
* Supervisors would grant supervisees self-responsibility for their own work as they progress over time;
* Supervision is not a task but role functioning by supervisors in a system of managerial actions, guidance, and support in a professional relationship with supervisees;
* The supervisory situation provides personal and professional benefits to both role players;
* Client satisfaction is of primary concern.

Supervisors and supervisees empirically surveyed in respect of their notion of how supervision might be defined, subscribed to a large proportion of the above characteristics identified by the literature. It was noted that all twenty one supervisors who responded identified **support** as an integral element of supervision, compared to 82% (69) of the eighty four supervisees who were approached. These responses confirm the generally acceptable perception that **support** is an important component of supervision, one held by professionals closely alligned to it,

as well as validating the similar view expressed by the literature.

2.3 Objectives of supervision

An examination of the literature indicates that there are several objectives of supervision. The works of Austin (1981 : 45), Kadushin (1985 : 22, 24), Kadushin (1992 i : 20), Munson (1983 : 4) and Shulman (1982 : 19-22) for example, range these between those relating directly to the nature of the service to clients, those that have to do with agency performance and philosophy, and those that would concern supervisees' professional performance and growth. These views adequately show supervision up to be a comprehensive method of intervention that is intent on providing a supplementary service to social work practice in as wide a manner as possible.

Other postulations hold that the primary objective of supervision is to ensure that recipients of assistance receive a quality service. Of note in this regard are those of Austin (1981 : 11-12), Kadushin (1992 ii : 22), Miller (1977 : 1545), Munson (1983 : 3-5), and Shulman (1982 : 12-15). Miller (1977: 1545) adds with emphasis that these functions ought to occur in a fashion tailored to the expectations of the helping situation. Again, these views echo strong concern that supervision is a service that is bent on maintaining a professional flavour in its alignment with direct practice.

The expectations of the helping situation revolve around the alliance of the faith of supervisees and the treatment action they take on behalf of the recipient of that action. The supervisor has the function of keeping track of the extent to which that alliance is maintained, reinforcing supervisees in the correct manner of doing so, and constantly allowing a congruence of the perceptions of themselves and supervisees towards the end of providing the best form of assistance to the recipient client (Munson 1983 : 3-4).

The actions of supervisors in helping supervisees in this way could take various forms. Largely consistent with those definitions, characteristics, and other features identified in the discussion of the above literature, six actions or functions that reflect the objectives of supervision were put to the supervisors and supervisees in the empirical study. A highly positive response rate was achieved. The responses obtained for each group of supervisors and supervisees are summarised in Table 2.1 below in terms of how they ranked those objectives.

Table 2.1 The objectives of supervision

	N=21 Supervisors	N=84 Supervisees
To ensure that clients get full entitlement to service	91% (19)	98% (82)
To ensure the professional development of supervisees	95% (20)	98% (82)
To ensure more complete development of supervisees as mature persons	95% (20)	98% (82)
To ensure that supervisors are aware of stresses and strains on supervisees so that these can be mitigated	100% (21)	100% (84)
To ensure that agency policy and procedures are carried out	100% (21)	99% (83)
To ensure that the image of the agency is not damaged	95% (20)	98% (82)

It may be deduced from the ranking of responses given in Table 2.1 above that the responses of the supervisors and supervisees were consistent with the views of the literature. For example, that the interests of the client were primary, to be followed by those of supervisors and supervisees, and finally by the agency's. This finding was particularly consistent with those achieved in a survey among practising social workers and supervisors by Kadushin (1992 ii : 22). These findings reflected a keen awareness of the purpose and objectives of supervision and indeed social work. Also, that supervision as a practice method and aid is geared for attending to the needs of both supervisees and supervisors. It therefore was logical to expect that the respondents would give a last ranking to the effect that their performance in the context of supervision might

have on the image of the organisation, a conception that is also implicit in the discussion of the objectives of supervision by Rothmund (1992 : 2-5), who subscribes fully to the general description of the objectives of supervision.

Additional comment voluntarily offered by supervisors and supervisees in the research contained proposals that the identified objectives of supervision can only be reached if supervisees develop as individuals and not as replicas of their supervisors or colleagues. These sentiments expressed a need for the creation of a democratic culture, one in which professional recognition was present within an associative working environment (Kadushin 1985 : 23; Kadushin 1992 i : 85).

2.4 Practical details of supervision

The nature of formal supervision is usually characterised by predetermined programmes of implementation. It would involve the number of supervisees that individual supervisors might realistically be expected to supervisee, the frequency, length, and term of individual and group conferences, as well as the allotment of time needed for all activities involved in it.

Supervision programmes and policy may vary from organisation to organisation. The following discussion therefore does not relate to any particular organisation but rather to a general practice of supervision.

(i) Supervisor-supervisee ratio

The authoritative works of Kadushin (1976, 1985 and 1992) has consistently avoided any reference to ratios for supervisor-supervisee working relationships. Other substantive contributions to the study of supervision, like those of Austin (1981), Munson (1983), Pettes (1979), and Shulman (1982) are equally evasive of laying down any suggested ratio.

There are, however, more recent empirically based attempts to have some guidelines about this aspect of the practice of supervision. For example, Holloway and Brager (1989 : 144) contend that limiting the ratio to a maximum of 7 supervisees to every 1 supervisor would, inter alia, succeed in obviating the tendency of directing attention centrally to supervisors as group leaders. Alternatively, in his study of 6 Regional Offices of the Department of Health Services and Welfare (the then House of Assembly, South Africa, 1987), Weekes (1987: 58) had found an average ratio of 4,3 supervisees to every 1 supervisor to be the case, a ratio that was claimed to have worked well. In Weekes' (1987 : 58) study , therefore, the chances of obviating the tendency of directing attention centrally to the supervisor was even greater.

The ratio of 4,3 supervisees to every 1 supervisee was nonetheless smaller than the regulated ratio of a minimum of 6 supervisees to every 1 supervisor. This was confirmed through direct contact with the Regional Directors of the Departments of Social Welfare and Pensions, and of Health Services and Welfare

(1989) who claimed that ratios were laid down by their Departments whose subsidisation of posts was based on the latter. The artificial situation is thus caused wherein the average supervisor:supervisee ratio among most organisations was found to be 1:6, brought about by the endeavour to secure State subsidisation for supervisor posts rather than on the basis of whether this ratio was suitable in all practice situations or not.

Whereas the finding of Weekes (1987 :58) had shown that not all organisations were able to meet the minimum Departmental requirements for the subsidisation of supervisor posts, the relevant Departmental regulation appeared more focussed on practical issues as viewed by the Departments concerned. They had appeared more intent on focussing greater attention on the attempt to secure the greatest number of individual unit workers that could form the unit of supervisor and supervisees vis-a-vis easing of the role of the supervisor. By regulating the ratio to fewer supervisees for every supervisor it is likely that the supervisory task of rendering administrative, educative, and supportive functions would be eased, and more opportunity would be created for individual attention to supervisees.

In the case of those supervisors and supervisees surveyed in the practice setting, the preference for fewer supervisees was firmly expressed. An average of 5,1 supervisees to every supervisor was found to be prevalent, confirming the further desire to rather focus attention on the quality of supervision in their practice

than on over extending the capacity of supervisors. Hardcastle (1991 : 65) however, cautions that there is little evidence to suggest that small ratios of 1:5 to 1:7 would indeed improve worker performance.

(ii) Frequency of individual sessions

Timetables for supervisory sessions have become standard aids for supervisors. They assure regular contact between supervisors and supervisees. They are generally regarded as a desirable way whereby the administrative, educational, and supportive functions of supervision are fulfilled (Kadushin 1985 : 185). In a later survey among practising social workers and supervisors, Kadushin (1992 ii : 14) had found that individual sessions between supervisors and supervisees were viewed by them as the principal context in which supervision was taking place.

According to Pettes (1979 : 47-49) timetables are a better alternative to the 'open-door' system, one in which supervisees have on-the-spot conferences with supervisors in order to relieve stressful emergencies. She maintains that the 'open-door' cannot be open all the time especially since supervisors cannot attend to supervisees when they are already busy with others. Another disadvantage is the lack of preparation that comes with the unscheduled sessions, leading to a rushed and harried session (Kadushin 1985 :185-186). It thus makes sense that frequent, scheduled contact between supervisors and supervisees should be pre-arranged so that supervisees are assured of focussed

attention on their particular work at a time and place that is meant specially for them.

Some supervisees will need to consult more than others on a regular basis. This would present additional reason why scheduled times for supervision would be essential. Pettes (1979 : 48) advises that various time intervals may be used for scheduled supervision although in her estimation the most common interval was 7 days. The writings of theorists like Austin (1981), Kadushin (1985), and Munson (1983) do not, however, contain any suggestions of a similar kind. They prefer instead to leave the scheduling of individual conferences to those who operate under different conditions and circumstances. A study by Shulman (1982) had, for example, found that working conditions and circumstances, like supervisor-supervisee ratios, play a role in dictating scheduling.

In an elaborate study of supervisory role, supervisory context, job stress, and manageability among Canadian workers in child welfare, nursing, and residential care, Shulman (1982) had discovered that the average frequency was once a month. This frequency was indeed dictated by the context in which the work was taking place and the levels of low competency of the supervisees.

In comparison, the empirical study conducted in search of data for the evaluative study, found that the predominant frequency of 4 times a month (or once a week) was found to be the case,

as reflected in Table 2.2 below. Thus the relevance of conditions and circumstances under which supervisees and supervisors operate has a distinct bearing on decision-making in respect of scheduling for individual conferences.

Table 2.2 Frequency of individual supervisory sessions

	No of times in the month				
	1	2	3	4	5
Supervisors (N=21)	-	14% (3)	-	86% (18)	-
Supervisees (N=84)	1% (1)	14% (12)	-	85% (71)	-

Corresponding with the later findings of Kadushin (1992 ii : 14) in his survey of social workers and supervisors, the findings reflected in Table 2.2 are also consistent with Pettes's suggestion that 7-day intervals between sessions were most common. Intervals of this length would indeed allow both supervisors and supervisees ample use of the supervisory opportunity for professional gain.

However, as was suggested in the case of supervisor-supervisee ratios, it is not feasible to be doctrinaire about how frequent sessions ought to be. Far more relevant is the mutual and equitable benefit to be drawn from regular sessions as an opportunity for contact, best expressed in the following words of Pettes (1979 : 49) : 'Whatever the focus of the sessions, their regularity and continuity provides opportunity for mutual

learning and effective working. As worker and supervisor experience the value of working together in this way, constructive use of supervision becomes an attained goal.' However, it would be fair to expect that recently qualified supervisees would require more frequent supervision than those who have longer practice experience.

(iii) Length of individual sessions

The stipulation of a recommended length or duration of individual sessions is not to be found in the literature. It is instead suggested that the maximum time to be realistically spent to avoid a reduction in productivity or concentration should be 1,5 hours (Kadushin 1985 : 206). Indeed, in his later survey among 508 supervisors and 377 supervisees, Kadushin (1992 ii : 11-14) had found that the average length of sheduled conferences between individual supervisors and supervisees was between 0,5 hr and 1,0 hrs.

There is the further suggestion that the end of any session between a supervisor and supervisee should be pre-planned at the beginning of the session. This approach would allow for the completion of the agreed agenda within the allotted period of time. It might be assumed therefore that the agenda would largely determine the length of the session, and that the more experienced partnership of supervisor and supervisee would anticipate with some accuracy the length of time that agenda would require.

Consistent with the observation of Kadushin (1985 : 206), Table 2.3 below contains scores obtained in the empirical study that are an indication of the supervisors' and supervisees' preference for a maximum of 1,5 hour long sessions.

Table 2.3 Length of individual sessions

Time	**Supervisors**	**Supervisees**
less than 1/2 hour	0% (0)	8% (7)
1/2 hour to 1 hour	4% (9)	21% (18)
1 hour to 1,5 hours	56% (12)	61% (51)
1,5 hour to 2 hours	0% (0)	10% (8)
more than 2 hours	0% (0)	0% (0)
	N=21	N=84

The avoidance of excessively long or short sessions as reflected in Table 2.3 above portrays an inclination for judicious use of time and goal-directed individual sessions between supervisors and supervisees. Measured against the goals of mutual learning and collaboration that may be achieved through scheduled sessions, the average choice of 1 to 1,5-hour sessions would mean that supervisors and supervisees must be guided by concise, planned programmes or agenda that can be implemented in the alloted time of the sessions or supervisors and supervisees could at least pace themselves by means of the planned programme or agenda (Kadushin 1985 : 206; Kadushin 1992 : 151-153; Pettes 1979 : 49). It is clear that unless this approach to supervisory processes is followed, the alternative though less desireable form of unscheduled supervision would have to be adopted. A resultant encroachment on the time and other functions of

supervisors, and on the entitlement to private supervision of other supervisees would take place.

In answer to the question whether they had, in addition to the above sessions also held extra-ordinary, non-scheduled sessions, only one supervisor (5%) and four supervisees (5%) indicated that they had done so to attend to individual, personal needs. Although this echoed the need of those supervisees for more of the supervisor's time, it depicted a practice setting devoid of little disruption in the supervisory processes, and a penchant by supervisors and supervisees for order and discipline in the management of their professional tasks.

(iv) Frequency of group sessions

Despite accredited studies that found a general lack of popularity in the use of group supervision (Botha 1971 : 188; Cilliers 1982 : 51; Kadushin 1992 ii : 14; Shulman 1982), individual conferences are nonetheless found to be supplemented or complemented by group sessions involving supervisors and several or all of the supervisees for whom they are responsible (Kadushin 1985:391; Kadushin 1992 : 404-405).

Group sessions are defined as structured conferences with a task and an agenda. Further, as mentioned by Barretta-Herman (1993: 60), they are used for group supervision, regarded as the main format for the supervision of competent practitioners. These conferences would nonetheless be formed with the expectation that particular objectives will be set and achieved under the auspices

of a group leader (Kadushin 1985 : 392; Munson 1983 : 133-134). This definition would imply, among other things, that group conferences would be held with some regularity and frequency. In this way supervisory tasks such as giving technical information about agency procedures and expectations, explaining social theory, stimulating discussions around specific topics of relevance, or eliciting information from the group of supervisees, can be achieved with equal regularity and frequency. It may be assumed that with increased frequency of group sessions within reason, the chances of gaining the latter benefits would be improved.

If sessions at more than 3-week intervals could be viewed as less than frequent, then an inclination towards the tendency to improve the chances of gain from these sessions was not found in the practice setting. Whereas the group of supervisors and supervisees who were included in the empirical study might have shown that they were indeed aware of the benefits of group sessions, their rate of attending sessions did not reflect evident motivation for increased benefits. The extent of their participation in group sessions is shown in Table 2.4 below.

Table 2.4 Frequency of group sessions

	Supervisors	Supervisees
1 session per month	48% (10)	45% (38)
2 sessions per month	37% (8)	42% (35)
3 sessions per month	10% (2)	8% (7)
4 sessions per month	5% (1)	5% (4)
TOTAL	100% (N=21)	100% (N=84)

It is clearly shown in Table 2.4 above that the majority of both supervisors and supervisees were inclined to attend group sessions at fortnightly to 4-weekly intervals rather than more frequently. This preference seem to reflect further that a 2- to 4-week interval between sessions was sufficient for them to obtain the benefits of the group conference form of supervision. This finding cannot, however, be induced to a wider practice context since practice settings would vary as much as the level of experience and competence of supervisors and supervisees would. A doctrinairial attitude about a frequency of group sessions for general application can therefore not be expected.

(v) Duration of group sessions

Shulman (1982 : 22) had found that supervisors were prepared to give a substantial part of their time to group sessions, reversing to some extent the above empirical finding. On the other hand, Shulman's study (1982 : 22) does not claim the discovery of any preference for the duration of individual group sessions. Neither do theorists like Kadushin (1985 : 407) and Munson (1983 : 131-132), both of whom chose instead to advise supervisors to consider structure, settings, and schedules, leaving the choice of time and duration of sessions to supervisors.

The scant attention given to the matter of duration of group sessions might be due to the perception that duration would generally be dictated by the particular circumstances in which group supervision is practiced. As Pettes (1979 : 77) observes,

those circumstances must involve a realisation of the value of time as resource at the disposal of supervisors and supervisees, and its relation to the purpose of group conferences. The more valuable the time is considered to be for certain tasks of supervisees other than the attendance of group sessions, the more the likelihood of less frequent sessions.

It nonetheless remains the responsibility of supervisors to specify the hour and day for group sessions so that supervisees are able to adjust their full load of tasks inclusive of group sessions. In this way some attempt could be made to predetermine the duration of sessions (Kadushin 1985 : 407; Kadushin 1992 : 440-441).

The length of sessions held by supervisors and supervisees in the practice setting, and shown in Table 2.5 below, shows a distinct similarity in their preference for sessions of fairly long duration, although they differed in experience with regard to shorter sessions.

Table 2.5 Length of group sessions

Time	Supervisors	Supervisees
Less than 0,5 hour	-	7% (6)
0,5 hour to 1 hour	48% (10)	23% (19)
1 hour to 1,5 hours	52% (11)	52% (44)
1,5 hours to 2 hours	-	18% (15)
	N=21	N=84

The predominant preference for 1-hour to 1,5-hour sessions by supervisors and supervisees could also reflect the particular

practice setting and its particular conditions as dictating the time allotment for group sessions (Pettes 1979 : 77). Factors such as the gravity of problems handled, the number of team members, the availability of time , and workload, could be independent variables to the setting of time limits on the duration of group sessions.

(vi) Proportion of working time

By virtue of their role differentiation, it would be logical to expect supervisors to spend a considerably larger proportion of their working time on supervisory activity than supervisees. On the one hand, supervisors are able to spend a considerable proportion of their time directing, advising, and reviewing the work of their supervisees; on the other, supervisees are able to apportion their time between tasks directly destined for the supervisory situation, and those related to direct practice in their worker-client situation (Patti 1983 : 45).

Preceding Patti's view (1983 : 45), Shulman (1982) had found that supervisors had spent between 50% and 75% of their time in supervision and related activity, like preparation, planning, and administration. More significantly, however, Shulman's (1982) study group had expressed a desire for a reduced involvement in supervision to only 45% on the grounds of an underlying wish for more autonomy for their supervisees.

Apart from these contributions by the literature, there does not appear to be any recommended time that supervisors or supervisees ought to spend on supervision. However, given the importance that is ascribed to supervision within social work practice, it might be expected that supervisors and supervisees would allocate sufficient time and opportunity to it subject to the dictates of differing work situations and expectations (Kadushin 1985 : 30-31).

The approach to supervisors and supervisees engaged in practice produced the expected variation in the amount of time that supervisors and supervisees were spending on supervision. This variation is depicted in Table 2.6 below.

Table 2.6 Proportion of working time for supervision

	-25%	25%-50%	50%-75%	+75%
Supervisors N=21	-	43% (9)	57% (12)	-
Supervisees N=84	4% (3)	89% (75)	7% (6)	-

It is evident from the findings in Table 2.6 that the majority of supervisors had spent more than half of their working time confined to task performance involving activities that were directly supervisory in nature. It is also significant to note that the finding of nine (43%) of supervisors having spent between 25% and 50% of their time on supervision corresponds wholly with that found by Kadushin (1992 ii : 11 and 13) in his later survey among 508 supervisors. Supervisees, on the other

hand, had overwhelmingly showed a realistic apportioning of less than half of their working time to supervision. This tendency affirmed the expectation of more autonomous direct work with clients and their matters, than contact with supervisors.

(vii) Duration of term of supervision

If supervision's three main components of administration, education, and support are viewed separately, it may be considered probable that one or more of these components will be more retainable than the other. Research by Munson (1979: 55-60) had found that the greater part of sixty four supervisors and sixty five supervisees whom he had surveyed spent an indefinite time on case material and case management. This study excluded reference to the other tasks of an educative and supportive nature. This indefinite duration of the administrative task performance of supervision could nevertheless have been indicative of an organisational requirement that inexperienced supervisees should remain under supervision for as long as possible.

While Barretta-Herman (1993 : 59) is supported in her suggestion that '... it is not enough to accept the tradition of life-long supervision because it is part of the heritage of social work'..., it might be accepted that some form of supervision ought to stay intact. However, efforts have continually been made in the development of supervision to innovate ways whereby supervisors might be helped to have open, more complete access to supervisees' performance. Techniques such

as one-way mirrors for supervisors to see into live clinical situations and the use of video tapes for review by supervisors, simply means that the role of supervisors within an essentially traditional setting of supervising supervisees is being consolidated rather than weakened. This is despite the continuing call by those involved in supervision for a reduction in the dependency that supervision causes as well as the creation of opportunities for real autonomy for supervisees (Kadushin 1985 : 459).

Not much non-clinical material exists that shows how many social workers are supervised and for how long. Kadushin (1985 :472) maintains, however, that the reduced participation of supervisors in administrative functions should take the form of participatory management for supervisees in those functions normally expected of supervisors. This approach would contribute to a large measure towards placing a time limit on supervision.

Responding supervisors and supervisees in the empirical study indicated a variation in the term of individual and group supervision that they were involved in. These responses are represented in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7 Average term of supervision among supervisors and supervisees

	3 months	6 months	1 year	2 years	indefinitely
Supervisors N=21	-	5% (1)	5% (1)	14% (3)	76% (16)
Supervisees N=84	-	6% (5)	6% (5)	11% (9)	77% (65)

The findings in Table 2.7 are clear evidence of the traditionally indefinite time period within which supervision was being rendered by organisations employing supervisors. In this case, however, the opportunity for introducing changes in the nature and type of supervision appeared to be strong especially in terms of those changes postulated by the literature. This opportunity would be one way of removing the misconception that permanent supervision stifles growth and developement, an observation supported by Veeder (1990 : 41) who adds that accountability and professionalism could be achieved irrespective of the length of supervision.

Supporting comment by both supervisors and supervisees in the survey revealed that much of the supervisory activities were administrative. This involved the use of technical skills within a culture of participation, as well as on the basis of sound professional relationships between supervisors and supervisees. They also expressed a desire for a reduced supervisory contract tailored to the length of an in-service training programme and based on specific learning needs.

2.5 Consultation

Supervisees who had advanced to sufficiently competent levels of practice would make less use of formal supervision, and therefore would be more likely to consult with their supervisors in search of guidance and advice. On the basis of mutual respect, and the rationale of more self-direction, supervision of experienced

workers would taper off, and the workers concerned would use supervisors as internal consultants, who continue to be available for their ongoing professional development. Also, no matter how self-confident or competent supervisees might be, the need for administrative supervision would continue (Groenewald et al 1993 : 344; Kadushin 1985 : 465; Kadushin 1992 i : 133; Thackeray et al 1994 : 8).

Without ignoring the increase in the use of consultation with the increase in experience, and the fact that it could be used as a vehicle for the promotion of participatory management, other writers, like Kadushin (1985) and Pettes (1979), draw attention to the fact that the use of consultative, non-scheduled conferences between supervisors and supervisees would nonetheless have distinct disadvantages. Kadushin (1985 : 185-186) and Pettes (1979 : 47-49) cite the interruption of supervisors' systems of workload management, the encroachment on the time of other supervisees attending scheduled conferences, and the carefree-ness that come with informal, consultative contact and which might reflect a lack of planning.

Furthermore, the interrupting supervisee would experience personal guilt and a lack of respect for the supervisory role. The use, however, of non-scheduled consultative supervision ought to be mutually agreed upon by both supervisor and supervisee so that some attempt at accommodating it without undue interruption of other scheduled activities could be made.

A low count of 17% (14) of supervisees and 21% (4) of supervisors declared use of consultation with their supervisors and supervisees in the practice setting. These low scores were indicative of the fact that supervisees had advanced to sufficiently competent levels of practice that had raised their confidence for autonomy rather than approach supervisors outside of their allotted times; supervisors, on the other hand, could have conveyed the message that their supervisees were similarly experienced or that consultative sessions were not encouraged in order to avoid disruption of other schedules.

Most of those who had responded also felt that the purposes of consultative, impromptu contact with their supervisors were to address urgent issues and learning needs; obtain vital information; gain direction in plans of action; seek learning at the point of high motivation ; and, to use the supervisor as a sounding board for their own ideas. Although these advantages may also be achieved in formal, scheduled supervision, they nonetheless validate the need to '...seize the teachable moment' (Kadushin 1985 : 185).

2.6 Positive aspects of supervision

From their unique position of upward accountability to managerial structures and downward responsibility for the professional conduct of their supervisees, supervisors are the creators of environmental types, influence the lifes of their staff, and act in ways that affect production (Imundo 1980 : 4-7). This multiple role functioning of supervisors can thus become a

complex and difficult one if fulfilled without recognition of the positive dynamics of the supervisory situation or the role that each worker can play as a professional.

The positive aspects of supervision might have their origin in various contributory sources. These may be **affective**, like the instilling of feelings of approval in supervisors that might lead to a strengthening of one-to-one relations between them; **managerial**, like the equitable enforcement of the rules of practice; and **practice philosophy**, like proactiveness, a non-apologetic attitude, consistency in job-functioning, and measured leniency and reason (Austin 1981 : 299; Holloway and Brager 1989 : 86; Sayles 1979 : 42).

In the supervisor-supervisee relationship, the supervisor is in a strategically advantageous position from which to exert influence over the supervisee by way of an interactional process. This process is filled with the potential and indeed creation of conditions and exchanges that are cooperative, respectful, mutual, open, democratic and participatory. These are positive aspects of supervision without which supervisors and supervisees cannot exercise their functions of setting up a socially articulated system within which the supervisor is allowed '...to direct, coordinate, enhance, and evaluate the on-the-spot performance of the supervisees for whose work he is accountable' (Kadushin 1985 : 23-24).

Examples of these positive aspects and advantages of supervision were put to supervisors and supervisees who were involved in practice, in an effort to gauge to what degree they subscribed to them. The ranked findings in Table 2.8 below seemed to suggest that supervisors and supervisees had a clear perception of the positive aspects and effects of supervision.

Table 2.8 Positive aspects and effects of supervision according to supervisors and supervisees

Ranking		Supersisors	Supervisees
1	Difficult issues relevant to the practice are handled jointly by supervisors and supervisees	95% (20)	62% (52)
2	Support by supervisors is very helpful	62% (13)	99% (83)
3	Supervisees are empowered to work towards consultation through increased competency training and professional growth	91% (19)	91% (76)
4	Progress made by supervisees can be measured by supervisors	95% (20)	91% (76)
5	Feedback is given by supervisors on the ideas of practice put forward by supervisees	86% (18)	95% (80)
6	Supervisees' decisions on practice approaches can be clarified	91% (19)	85% (71)
7	Direction and clarity in the work are offered	95% (20)	99% (83)
8	Uncertainty and lack of confidence in supervisees are reduced	91% (19)	86% (72)
9	New trends in practice are noted and evaluated	95% (20)	94% (79)
10	Ideas on relevant aspects of the practice are channelled from supervisors to supervisees	20% (20)	80% (67)

Although respondents did not indicate their responses to all the listed examples, their ranking as shown in Table 2.8 above should nonetheless be viewed as an affirmation of the perception of the above literature. It is also clear evidence of an egalitarian application of supervision and a recognition of the supervisees' capacity to take part in resolving issues that might impede the performance of the whole team of supervisor and supervisees.

Support by the supervisor as the second most positive aspect of supervision seems to indicate that supervisees are primarily in need of the assurance that they are performing satisfactorily. It would also indicate therefore that supervisees have worth as professionals.

A further interpretation of the supervisors' and supervisees' responses, corresponding largely with several of the 847 statements on the strengths of supervisors that Kadushin (1992 iii : 5-10) obtained in his survey of supervisors and social workers, suggest that supervisors would also, on the basis of the above ranking, be able to achieve other benefits as further features of the positive aspects of supervision. These may be summarised as follows:

(a) A process of enhanced professional regard for supervisees would be facilitated.

(b) Realistic growth and development of supervisees through the identification of both positive and negative aspects of their work would be achieved.

(c) Recognition of the supervisees' ability to contribute intellectually to the practice of social work would be given.
(d) The introduction of novel approaches in the work as the primary responsibility of supervisees themselves would be possible, whereas supervisors could play a part in making them aware of similar developments in the practice.

2.7 Limitations of supervision

Problems associated with current supervision are perceived to be those that relate to the policies in terms of its practical application and those that have to do with its reliance on technological aids. In his extensive study of the problems and limitations of supervision, and the many ways which continue to be attempted to circumvent or eliminate them, Kadushin (1985 : 433-500) lays particular emphasis on commonly experienced problems and limitations.

Highest among policy issues is the difficulty of the prolonged duration of the term of supervision, and that in many instances it is interminable in respect of the administrative, educative and supportive functions of the supervisor. This alludes strongly to the possible need of supervisors to gain prolonged recognition of their selfs, and the power that is inherent in their position as supervisors.

Other problems identified in respect of the way supervisors perceived or conducted their professional functions emanate from their poor understanding of their role, the consequent inability

to clarify that role as far as its functions of administration, education, and support was concerned, inadequate knowledge of the social work practice and supervision, and an unawareness of the many changes taking place in communities. These shortcomings can only add to the poor professional status that social work is perceived to have (Barretta-Herman 1993 : 59).

Barretta-Herman (1993 : 59) supports the view that the poor image of social work supervision finds its source in its limited knowledge base, and the inadequate effort to change that image. It seems probable that much of that image could be obviated through the reduction of supervision rather than the use of innovative technological means which merely perpetuate the supervisory dilemma. Innovations such as direct observation, video or audio-tape recordings, and co-therapy supervision, though well geared to ease the task of supervisors, are destined to have limited lifetimes in the effort to counter the perpetuation of supervision as supportive procedure for direct practice (Kadushin 1985 : 40).

A summarised version of these analyses of the limitations of supervision and social work were put to supervisors and supervisees. Their responses were unanimous in terms of ranking the limitations as described in Table 2.9 below. Respondents could select more than one of the given limitations as is evidenced by the counts for each one in Table 2.9.

Table 2.9 Limitations of supervision

N=21 Supervisors (s)
N=84 Supervisees (sw)

Ranking	Limitation	s	sw
1	Supervisors are more concerned about issues of themselves than those of their supervisees; for example, their need for recognition rather than the learning needs of supervisees	95% (20)	100% (84)
2	Supervisors do not distinquish or fulfil their supportive, administrative, and educational roles with enough clarity	100% (21)	98% (82)
3	Supervision is interminable, and is thereby inclined to create dependency in supervisees	95% (20)	98% (82)
4	Supervision has a 'cinderella' image; little is done to improve the quality of work through the reduction of supervision and the increase of self-regulating, managerial modes of practice	95% (20)	99% (83)
5	Supervisors are given a great deal of power; they prefer a didactic approach in role functioning, avoiding group discussions and group decision-making	95% (20)	99% (83)
6	Supervisors do not have adequate knowledge and practical know-how appropriate to supervision and social work practice	100% (21)	100% (84)
7	Supervisors do not know the recipient communities of the agency, and are therefore unaware of the changes and events that take place within communities	100% (21)	100% (84)

Whilst the ranking given to the examples of limitations appearing in Table 2.9 confirms much of the above discussion, other equally

significant deductions from the ranking would include the following. For the sake of clarity, the wording of each limitation is repeated here and in a sequence consistent with its ranking in Table 2.9, as well as in the light of Kadushin's (1992 ii: 9-27 and 1992 iii : 3-19) studies:

(1) 'Supervisors are more concerned about issues of themselves than those of their supervisees; for example, their need for recognition rather than the learning needs of supervisees'- The priority ranking given to this limitation coincides well with the literature that supervisors' over-indulgence in issues of their own would be detrimental to the supervisory relationship and the profession (Botha 1976 : 33; Pettes 1979 : 3; and, Strauss and Sayles 1980 : 77). Indeed, as Newsome and Pillari (1991 : 124) contend , a positive and supportive supervisor-supervisee relationship would be critical for effective delivery of treatment to clientele. It is maintained that whereas supervisee learning needs will vary in a continuous process of new learning, supervisees will not advance to acceptable levels of competence if supervisors are caught up with their own needs for assurance that they are performing satisfactorily. Rather it would seem that both should strike a balance between the satisfaction of their separate needs without impediment to those of either one.

(2) 'Supervisors do not distinquish or fulfil their supportive, administrative, and educational roles with enough clarity'- The high concern shown for this deficiency of supervisory practice leads to the conclusion that supervisees preferred a

delineation of these functions, the boundaries of which could be blurred in actual practice.

(3) 'Supervision is interminable, and thereby inclined to create dependency in supervisees'- The equally high concern for this limitation of supervision would perpetuate the absence of freedom, firm control of supervisees' work by supervisors, and the continuing undermining of their potential to grow as autonomous professional workers. Both supervisees and supervisors were thus in agreement, by virtue of their high ranking of this limitation, that supervision should be geared for the eventual autonomy of supervisees.

(4) 'Supervision has a "cinderella" image; little is done to improve the quality of work through the reduction of supervision and the increase of self-regulating, managerial modes of practice'. This was regarded as the perpetuation of a master-apprentice type of supervision at the time of the empirical study. It also echoed what Bamford (1982 : 144) had earlier prefered to classify as social works' antithesis to management. By this was meant that it saw social workers as clients, to be attended to on the basis of their individual problems; that the uniqueness and capacity for change of each supervisee eliminated the relevance of any mechanistic approach to their development, the latter for which management continues to be well known even in a self-regulating form; that the emphasis was on pschychological and emotional factors vis-a-vis structural ones; and, that the democratic orientation of social work caused ambivalence about a move to management (Joubert 1988 : 5-6). Since then, however, this picture has changed. As observed by

Hurlbert (1992 : 62), supervisor's skills are more diverse as their functions increase towards the inclusion of managerial tasks, like monitoring volume and quality performance within programme structures developed at higher managerial levels.

It seems clear that at the time of the survey, supervisors and supervisees had expressed a strong desire for a departure from the status quo, and an entry into the new era of innovations for more stable and acceptable forms of human service provision. Also, that they are agreed on the unacceptability of systems of supervision that continue to ignore the management potential that social workers have to take control of their own work.

Management is characterised by modes of operation that has built-in mechanisms for self-regulated responsibility for work tasks by those supervisees involved as well as their use of behavioral or humanistic capability to respond to psychological or emotional problems which they might experience in the workplace. Whereas the 'mechanistic' nature of management is an acceptable description, it is nonetheless not acceptable that supervisees cannot combine managerial skills in planning, organising, or controlling, together with those educational and supportive skills associated with supervision, in liaison with supervisors.

(5) 'Supervisors are given a great deal of power; they prefer a didactic approach in role functioning, avoiding group discussions and group decision-making' - Ranking this limitation 5th out of a possible 7 rankings shows the supervisors' and

supervisees' low regard for it as a limitation. This perception, however, would be situation-based in the case of the respondent supervisors and supervisees. It nevertheless confirms the notion that the supervisors' power is derived from the authority vested in the supervisory position; and, that supervision in their situations was not didactic since mutual exchange was encouraged and group participation in decision-making was practised. The latter, however, might in some instances portray a less authoritarian trend or avoidance of personal authority by incompetent supervisors (Caplow 1976 : 94).

(6) 'Supervisors do not have adequate knowledge and practical know-how appropriate to supervision and social work practice' - The penultimate ranking of this limitation of supervision is strong evidence that supervisors were not considered inadequately knowledgeable in supervision and social work, a fact considerably validated by the findings obtained in respect of the knowledge and characteristics of supervisors engaged in practice at the time of writing.

(7) 'Supervisors do not know the recipient communities of the agency, and are therefore unaware of the changes and events that take place within communities' - The lowest ranking of this limitation conveyed the impression that both supervisors and supervisees had little regard for this example as a limitation. Instead, their responses implied that supervisors had indeed kept abreast of the dynamics of community change which, in turn, could give rise to an overall anticipating stance and more realistic guidance and support to supervisees.

2.8 Summary

An authoritative literature on supervision are consistently agreed on the definition and practice of supervision from its earliest beginnings to its contemporary state. This chapter had thus made reference to selected sources from the literature in the discussion of the many aspects of supervision.

It is logical to assume that the practice of supervision would be subject to how it is defined, its many practical characteristics and idiosyncracies, and how supervisors fulfil their role on the basis of their attributes, skills, and actions. The discussion and conclusions drawn in this chapter focussed attention on the definition of supervision, its objectives, the several formalised and impromptu structures used to apply supervisory obligations, as well as the positive and negative effects of it both on the participants and on the profession.

In the process of discussion and drawing conclusions, this chapter identified the positive changes in supervisory practice. Changes ranged from those that pointed towards a more managerial image for supervision, to those that heralded the increasing respect for supervisees as professionals and who were entitled to increased autonomy and participatory decision-making status with supervisors. In the latter respect, the creation of a more participatory culture of supervision was established as having already taken root in practice.

Other aspects of supervision that were found to have not changed were the variability in perception between those of supervisors and supervisees, and some formats of supervisory structures that preceded the beginning of the management era in supervision. The evaluative study thus confirmed that participatory tendencies in supervision appear to have been commonly demonstrated.

CHAPTER 3

PROFESSIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SUPERVISORS

3.1 Introduction

The professional characteristics of supervisors would have a bearing on the way supervision is practiced in any social work setting. It might further be expected that unless supervisors have the required professional make-up to handle the many aspects of supervision which are elaborated on in the previous chapter, the quality of supervision and indeed that of the management of the direct practice of social work would be hampered.

In this chapter, therefore, the basic professional characteristics of supervisors are discussed and evaluated on the above basis. Regarded as the foundation of their performance, the ethical requirements to which they have to subscribe, initiate the discussion.

3.2 Ethical considerations

As might be found in most other professions, codes of conduct are meant to guide, support, and protect the actions of professional social workers and supervisors. Their professional behaviour is thus regulated, and uniform. At the core of these codes are ethical considerations that contribute to their acceptability or rejection (Regulations governing the Professional conduct of Social Workers, The Social Work Act R 164 of 1978:Section 5 a-c).

The latter regulations seem to suggest that supervisees are to act under the ethical mandate to seek supervisory assistance. The further implication is that supervisors have both the professional knowledge and capability to be approached by subordinate supervisees, subject to ethical considerations.

As far as specific ethical considerations are concerned the Code recommends actions that are wholly consistent with those identified by Levy (1973 : 18-20). The actions refer to those between colleagues like supervisors and supervisees. They are required to:

(a) exercise respect, fairness, and courtesy between themselves;
(b) show a willingness to collaborate;
(c) exercise mutual resolution of differences and criticisms;
(d) protect each other against the criticism of others outside the field of social work;
(e) share knowledge;
(f) show honesty in relations; and,
(g) honour and practice confidentiality in all their joint actions.

These ethical considerations denote a management philosophy with elements of cooperative working styles, positive attitudes towards the enriching of each other's performance and experience, and behaviors that would encourage communication, sound interrelationships, removal of obstacles, and mutual respect for each other as professionals. On the one hand, they substantially validate Ray and Eison's (1983 : 110-112) contention that

following an evolutionary, formulative period during which the influence of the Schools of Scientific Management and Human Relations/Interpersonal Management had contributed to the establishment of a morally sound management philosophy, ethical considerations adopted by social work supervision have been some of the fruits of that period.

It is further contended that in reality, the many excessive demands of organisational life (meeting deadlines, resolving conflicts, and so on) with which supervisors and supervisees would have to contend do not make dignity of secondary importance, nor reflect that the human services have been dehumanised by means of the disregard for the need for a morally sound management technology. Indeed, as Ables and Murphy (1981 : 11-14) reflect, ethical codes of conduct, values, emphases, and norms of agencies are changing sufficiently and rapidly in the favour of staff. Agencies are beginning to recognise professional staff more and more, by allowing more participation, consultation and independent orientations, new supervisory styles that signify a belief in innovation, and opportunity for staff to achieve results (Beck 1978 : 11; Dublin 1981 : 234-235; Kadushin 1985 : 500, and 1992 i : 482).

On the other hand, supervision is not devoid of the ethical dilemma of supervisors having to give advice and counselling to supervisees on matters that touch on the very rights of clients' decision-making and self-determination. At times the clients rights are shifted to supervisees and their supervisors

where decisions are asked of them concerning deeply ethical matters, like whether to agree to the abortion of the feotus of a mother who has had four girls and now desperately wants a boy (Kadushin 1985 : 485). There is, therefore, a practice situation that has always had to grapple with issues of how to reconcile the expected ethical conduct of supervisors and supervisees with those ethical considerations that permeate the normal conduct of the people they serve.

Without prejudice to these dilemmas, examples of ethically based actions in respect of their own working relationship were put to supervisors and supervisees in the empirical survey. This exercise drew positive responses, shown in Table 3.1, that seem to support the theoretical contentions discussed above.

Table 3.1 Ethical considerations in the supervisor-supervisee relationship

	Supervisors	Supervisees
Showing courtesy, respect, and fairness to each other	95% (20)	98% (82)
Helping each other in appropriate ways	100% (21)	98% (82)
Resolving mutual criticism of differences	95% (20)	98% (82)
Defending each other against criticism by others	100% (21)	100% (84)
Mutually exchanging knowledge and experience	100% (21)	100% (84)
Exercising openness in all inter-actions	100% (21)	99% (83)
Respecting shared confidences	95% (20)	100% (84)

The scores in Table 3.1 above indicate that respondents could select more than one of the examples given. It is concluded

from the overall responses that the 21 supervisors and 84 supervisees differed minimally in their perceptions of how ethical considerations applied in their situations. Their unanimous responses in agreement with the validity of the examples of ethical conduct listed in Table 3.1 also adds weight to the notion that supervisors are role models, that ethics are part of the administrative function of supervisors, and that supervisees ought to be treated as professionals whilst being enabled to develop (Rothmund 1991 : 9-13, and 1990 : 8).

3.3 Qualifications of supervisors

An increasing tendency among South African social workers and supervisors to acquire post graduate qualifications had been claimed in studies by Van Biljon (1971 : 231) and Kellerman (1983 : 21). Such qualifications, however, were generically based and did not focus on specialist education in supervision. These studies were, however, countered by Van Jaarsveld (1984 : 145-147) who had later found that 61,2% of his study group of supervisors holding permanent positions had had no training; 62,2% were not formally screened for those positions; and 84,6% had had no orientation upon taking up their positions. The latter findings thus portrayed a picture of differing conditions in which supervisors were not predominantly qualified or unqualified. Other studies in other situations, have produced similar results for the same period. For example, researchers like Kadushin (1985 : 490-491) and Munson (1983 : 13) contend that few supervisors undergo extended systematic education in supervision, and that this causes a problem to the profession.

Concurring with Van Biljon' (1971) and Kellerman's (1983) findings, subsequent research by Kadushin (1992 ii : 13) among 483 supervisors had found that 90% of this group had undergone some short-term formal training in supervision offered by schools of social work. This practice would be to the advantage of the profession which remains predominantly under-equipped to deliver a quality service especially since supervisors have been shown to be ultimately responsible for the work of supervisees and the general form of service to the client. Supervisors have also to carry out tasks requiring knowledge and training that calls for good professional judgement, like the resolution of conflict among supervisees. There is no doubt, therefore, that the qualifications (or lack of it) of supervisors would have a bearing on the standard of service delivered.

Whereas it is generally known that the University of Stellenbosch has for some time been offering an accredited supervisors training course in an attempt to remedy this situation, there is also some indication of the positive trend claimed by the literature reflected in the findings derived from the formal approach to supervisors at selected Family Welfare organisations in the Western Cape. Included in Table 3.2 below are data reflecting the educational background of supervisors, and their current academic pursuits. It is to be noted that respondents were able to indicate their responses in more than one of the courses of study shown in the Table.

Table 3.2 Educational background and current studies of supervisors

3-year University diploma/degree (Social Work)	18%	(4)
4-year University diploma/degree (Social Work)	30%	(6)
Honours degree in Social Work	33%	(7)
Advanced diploma in Social Work	21%	(5)
Master's degree in Social Work	10%	(2)
Current study (eg MA Social Work or Admin. and Management)	58%	(12)

N=21

As shown in Table 3.2 above, supervisors had predominantly taken courses in either the 4-year or Honours stream. This may be interpreted as a strong indicator of a supervisor population that adequately met the basic requirements for supervisory positions. The relatively high involvement in learning on the Masters level or of another specialist nature, adds positively to the basic educational standard of the supervisors concerned. Their current endeavour was viewed as indicative of the realisation that an extra knowledge would enhance their calibre as supervisors, apart from inviting more attractive remuneration. These trends do not, therefore, reaffirm the contentions of Kadushin (1985 : 490) and Munson (1983 : 13) that the practice of supervision is impoverished by the perpetuation of academic pursuits generally focussed on subjects other than the practice and nature of supervision. Kadushin (1992 i : 37-38, 296, 507-509, 513) is supported in his opinion that knowledge and training by supervisors in the practice of supervision is urgently needed so that they might perform acceptably as competent supervisors.

3.4 Experience of supervisors

Supervisory positions are generally awarded on the basis of the incumbent's experience together with other qualifying factors such as training, skills, attitude, and personality. It may be assumed therefore that only the more experienced of social workers would qualify for consideration as supervisors. This expectation is largely validated by research.

For example, studies by Cilliers (1982 : 32) concurred well with those of Kadushin (1992 ii : 12) that supervisors had an average of 11,5 to 12 years of social work experience, whereas Munson's (1983 : 24) had found 15 years to be the average social work experience among them. It may thus be assumed that supervisors were likely to be older, and therefore more mature, than supervisees. This characteristic is regarded as an asset to the profession insofar as supervisors' role functioning would be further enhanced when knowledge, personality, and positionary power are combined with discretion tinged with experience (Munson 1979 : 336-346).

However, in situations where the supervisor is both young and inexperienced the supervisor-supervisee relationship could become problematic. On the one hand, his experience would be the factor of strength on which he is able to enter the position perhaps ahead of others more experienced. Alternatively, in supervisor-supervisee interactions he might feel inadequate to supervise or teach others more experienced than him. These

problems are not common since the degree of inexperience among supervisors is minimal (Kadushin 1985 : 310-311).

Almost consistent with the findings of Cillers (1982) and Munson (1983), the survey of supervisors and supervisees showed the range depicted in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Experience of supervisors and supervisees

	Years of experience					
	0 - 2	2 - 4	4 - 6	6 - 8	8 - 10	10 - 12
Supervisors N=21				10% (2)	24% (5)	66% (14)
Supervisees N=84	1% (1)	58%(49)	29%(24)	12%(10)		

Here in Table 3.3 an average of 10 to 12 years of experience for supervisors is shown. The finding that supervisees had, on average, only gained two to four years of experience denoted the probability that they would remain particularly dependent on supervision, and, like other supervisees with longer experience, would remain under supervision for an unspecified period of time for the purposes of personal and professional growth and development. This would call for a supervisee-centred form of supervision that would simultaneously retard the supervisee's chances of gaining early autonomy (Kadushin 1992 i : 161-162; 196-200; and 473).

3.5 Skills of supervisors

The literature promotes the view that skills of conceptualisation (derived from knowledge and intellect), interpersonal relations

(derived from personality and understanding of human behavior), and professional experience, must be bolstered by task or technical skills to ensure competence or effective performance (Imundo 1980 : 8-9; Kadushin 1985 : 24-26; Middleman and Rhodes 1985 : 234-236; Shulman 1982 : 165-166). These categories of skills allude to cognitive, relational, and mechanistic forms that skills would have to take before supervisors can attain successful practice. They also comprise a holistic approach to the process of gaining skills by supervisors.

As far as **conceptual** skills are concerned, the skilfull performance of various tasks associated with the administrative, educative, and supportive functions of supervision would be expected of supervisors. These imply a large range of sub-tasks that would manifest the supervisor's internal interpretation of those elements that comprise the supervisory situation.

Conceptual skills include a realistic view of the organisation of employ and how its various parts form an interconnected whole; a clear concept of the social service offered by the organisation and how it coincides with its own interests; understanding how the social work with clients interrelates with the interests of the client's community of residence; understanding of the processes involved in the social work service rendered; and, having equally good understanding of the supervisory process and its effects. An extension of this understanding would be the supervisor's skill in imparting his interpretations to his

supervisees (Cronje 1986 : 144-145; Kadushin 1985 : 24-25; Munson 1983 : 75-84).

When asked to indicate to what extent conceptual skills based on the above description applied in their particular situations, supervisors and supervisees declared their responses as given in Table 3.4 below.

Table 3.4 Conceptual skills of supervisors

N=21 Supervisors (s)
N=84 Supervisees (sw)

	Never		Seldom		Frequently		At all times	
	S	SW	S	SW	S	SW	S	SW
View the agency as a whole	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	2% (2)	27% (6)	41% (34)	73% (15)	57% (48)
Coordinate agency's interests and its social work activities	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	2% (2)	18% (4)	55% (46)	82% (17)	43% (36)
Understand the interrelatedness of the supervisees' work and the community's interests	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	5% (4)	27% (6)	45% (38)	73% (15)	50% (42)
Understand the social work process	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	36% (8)	77% (65)	64% (13)	23% (19)
Understand the supervisory process	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	18% (15)	36% (8)	72% (61)	64% (13)	10% (8)

The overal weighting of scores towards 'frequently' and 'At all times' for supervisors in Table 3.4 above is clear testimony of their positive self-view as supervisors. It also does well in highlighting the good practice of supervisory skills in terms of

the examples put to them. Given that the composite of these examples might be regarded as the understanding of the context of the work and all its dynamics, it thus represents too, a managerial skill whereby a holistic view by supervisors of the role of supervisor is displayed (Middleman and Rhodes 1985: 235).

However, the supervisees' responses in respect of their own supervisors were not as positive as those of supervisors. These responses do not necessarily reflect Munson's concept (1983 : 20) of "diminished perceptions", that is, a reflection of inveterate dissatisfaction shown towards supervisors and which would thus not have been viewed as a true reflection of reality. Instead, supervisees in the survey may well have had perceptions of their supervisors that were free of anxieties about their own inadequacies and which might have tainted their responses.

As far as **interpersonal skills** - otherwise known as **human skills** - are concerned, Imundo (1980 : 8) suggests that supervisors ought to know how to use them in order to have satisfactory working relations with their supervisees, and to be approachable. Kadushin (1985 : 23) adds to this perception by focussing on the interactional process between supervisors and supervisees, implying that interpersonal skills would be a basic requirement. Alternatively, Shulman (1982), devoting his entire work at an attempt to formulate a general theory of supervision, postulates a theory of supervision that is essentially grounded on interpersonal or interactional behavior between supervisors and supervisees.

These perspectives have a common thread that point at the proposition that supervision is a process of actions and activities in which supervisors, by virtue of their experience, education, and training are expected by others around them to have the skill to interact with their supervisees, a skill without which they would not be able to exercise their supervisory obligations. Those interractive skills would consequently help them establish relationships with their supervisees and colleaques that would resemble '...a small interlocking social system'(Kadushin 1985 : 23-24).

Positive outcomes might then be expected to issue from these relationships. Supervisors and supervisees would be mutually respectful of each other as professionals; they would be likely to cooperate with each other on the basis of openness; and, an environment of democratic and participatory cohesiveness would prevail. In situations where these outcomes prevail, it may be assumed that the supervisory process would be greatly facilitated. It is possible, however, that the supervisors' use of interpersonal skills would also show their power and authority derived from knowledge of the job on hand (Kadushin 1985 : 23 and 92).

With regard to these manifestations of the interactional or human relations skills of supervisors, the empirical approach to supervisors and supervisees produced evidence that strongly suggested that supervisors used human skills more than adequately. This evidence is reflected in Table 3.5 below.

Table 3.5 Human skills of supervisors

N=21 Supervisors (s)
N=84 Supervisees (sw)

	Never		Seldom		Frequently		All of the time	
	S	SW	S	SW	S	SW	S	SW
Working with colleagues	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	34% (7)	57% (48)	66% (14)	43% (36)
Working with, understanding, and motivating supervisees	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	2% (2)	27% (6)	55% (46)	73% (15)	43% (36)
Maintaining professional relationships	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	5% (4)	18% (4)	62% (52)	82% (17)	33% (28)

A positive self-view by supervisors similar to that found in the case of conceptual skills is reflected in Table 3.5 above, countered by a similarly less generous perception by supervisees of their supervisors. By this is meant that supervisees did not see supervisors as consistently active with regard to any of the examples of human skills included in the research. It is nonetheless clear that the very large proportion of the supervisors who said they were consistently able to use relationships as a means towards improving understanding of supervisees, collaboration with their equals and supervisees, and motivating supervisees within professional bounds, appeared well disposed in the use of these human skills.

Apart from the degrees of comparison in their use, the human skills of supervisors were nonetheless not found wanting. It may thus be assumed that supervisors had placed adequate importance on interpersonal skills, and that the resultant working

relationships with their supervisees were satisfactory. As a further consequence, the quality of supervision was benefited in that the supervisors were approachable to their supervisees, who would thus have been drawn closer to their supervisors. The latter's expert guidance, educational input, and support would have been more easily transfered to supervisees (Kadushin 1992 i : 141, 148, 307; Munson 1985 : 60-61).

Austin (1981 : 312-329) sees **technical skills** as a necessary supplement to both the conceptual and human skills. This is based on the assumption that supervisors are, for all intents and purposes, managers who have the task of ensuring that the work of supervisees is done as effectively and efficiently as possible. This further implies that supervisors ought to use procedures, techniques, systems of operation, and aids that would facilitate effectiveness and efficiency.

Munson (1983 : 220-238) describes with sharp circumspection several contemporary aids by means of which supervisors might easily facilitate the basic monitoring function of supervision as well as ease the processes of ongoing evaluation of the work of supervisors. These include television and videotaping of direct work for educative purposes; audiotaping; role play; and, live supervision. However, many of these aids have invited strong opposition from practitioners especially in so far as they are said to intrude on the privacy of the client-practitioner relationship (Munson 1983 : 237).

Despite opposition and despite the continuing search for innovative ways of circumventing their negative connotations, technical skills among supervisors remain a vital ingredient in educative and administrative supervision. The lack of direct access to supervisees' performance remain problematic to supervisors. Motivated by these practice conditions, supervisors are nonetheless propelled to resort to the use of devices that are capable of presenting them with a reliable view of the performance of supervisees. Supervisors who use devices and techniques that would assist them thus, would also be aided by the reliable information obtained in the evaluation of the supervisees' performance. Supervisees in turn might be presented with the opportunity for self-supervision using the same aids and information (Kadushin 1985 : 499).

Examples of technical skills were put to supervisors and supervisees operating in the practice setting. Their responses are shown in Table 3.5 below, and reflect a substantial penchant for their use among supervisors.

Table 3.6 Technical skills of supervisors

N=21 Supervisors (s)
N=84 Supervisees (sw)

	Never		Seldom		Frequently		All of the time	
	S	SW	S	SW	S	SW	S	SW
Using procedures, supervisory techniques and knowledge of practice	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	27% (6)	60% (50)	73% (15)	40% (34)
Devising systems to streamline procedures	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	5% (4)	27% (6)	75% (63)	73% (15)	20% (17)
Using administrative aids, like charts, schedules, rosters	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	18% (4)	12% (10)	82% (17)	88% (74)

A comparison of the findings shown in Table 3.6 above with those in Tables 3.4 and 3.5 lead to the conclusion that, despite differences of degree of frequency in the use of most of the various skills, the negligible number of the supervisors of responding supervisees who were found to have neglected in using those skills, reflects a satisfactory majority adherence to basic supervisory standards and practice. This is reminiscent of Munson's (1983 : 4) 'congruence of perceptions', denoting a selection of alternative skills or techniques to apply in practice, as well as Kadushin's (1985 : 429) combination of technical professional competence with competence in interpersonal human relations. Secondly, the 82% of supervisors and 88% of supervisees who saw their own supervisors use administrative aids at all times, is strong evidence of a realisation that :

(a) the supervisory task might be enriched by the inclusion of administrative aids in the technical strategy of their own function as supervisors; and,

(b) the supervisor-supervisee relationship might be facilitated by helping supervisees to engage in good explanation, description, and planning of problem-solving with their clients (Munson 1983 : 81-82).

3.6 Attributes of supervisors

The literature (Imundo 1980 : 12-14; Kadushin 1985 : 270; and 1992 i : 89-90) refer to several attributes which may exemplify desirable supervisory conduct. These include the more subtle and bureaucratic-like attributes that carry authority, like the ability to give instructions with confidence, and other individual and social attributes refering to knowledge, support, the setting of standards, critical feedback, educative functioning, setting objectives, and encouraging innovative behavior.

Whereas Imundo (1980 : 12-14) elects to itemise these attributes in a formal list, Kadushin (1985 : 270) prefers instead to combine them into a composite of comprehensive action that would reflect the supervisor's attributes. Kadushin (1985 : 270) maintains that in order for the supervisor to avoid doubt and confusion in supervisees, he could provide support for them using his knowledge of the work and agency policies in helping them conceive of these aspects and their own work goals and role within the agency. This display of supervisors' attributes would

represent an effective way of overlapping the administrative, educational, and supportive functions of the supervisory role.

It is also proposed that supervisors should continue in this fashion by showing the ability to set high standards for supervisees as well as for themselves, and giving critical, constructive feedback on how supervisees are either meeting or deviating from standards. Feedback should therefore be a learning experience to supervisees who would be subject to the educational role of supervisors whenever such feedback is required. Supervisees might in this process be made aware of how to rectify deviations or be guided in the introduction of new ways of doing their work (Kadushin 1985 : 199, 429; Munson 1983 : 7).

Clearly, the above emphasises the important role the basic attributes of supervisors would directly play in the supervisory process, and indirectly in the social work process for which supervisees are responsible. It is further assumed that the more supervisors are able to positively translate their attributes into good supervisory practice the more beneficial the effects would be to both supervisees and the work produced.

Some measure of this practice is reflected in the declaration by supervisors and supervisees of their overwhelming support for the nine attributes derived from the above literature, and included in Table 3.7 below and for which the extent of this support is reflected. The 21 supervisors and 84 supervisees who responded

could select more than one of the attributes listed, as shown by the scores obtained.

Table 3.7 The attributes of supervisors

	Supervisors	Supervisees
Have thorough knowledge of relevant areas, such as agency resources, legislation, and social work theory and practice	95% (20)	98% (82)
Are very supportive of supervisees	95% (20)	98% (82)
Are able to set a high standard of performance both for themselves and for supervisees	95% (20)	98% (82)
Are able to give critical feedback on supervisees' work as well as able to receive critical feedback on own performance	95% (20)	96% (81)
Know how to use supervision in order to maximise learning by supervisees	100% (21)	100% (84)
Can set objectives with supervisees	95% (20)	100% (84)
Are able to give instructions clearly and without apology	95% (20)	98% (82)
Stimulate new thinking and practice by encouraging supervisees to experiment with different approaches	100% (21)	100% (84)
Advocate for their supervisees in negotiation with higher management, on issues that impact on, or are affected by, their performance	95% (20)	100% (84)

The attributes listed in Table 3.7 above are also a demonstration of the supervisors' qualities of leadership, respect for supervisees as their co-professionals, regard for the growth potential of supervisees, a belief in innovation and creativity, concern for the supervisees' need for reassurance and worthiness, subscription to the ideal of high levels of performance, and a regard for supervisees as partners in the setting of paths of action. These attributes were also well reflected in 341 statements Kadushin (1992 iii : 4-7) obtained from supervisors who participated in his research. In the case of the latter

research the attributes were regarded as the strenghts of supervisors.

The sum total of the attributes as mirrored in specific actions of supervisors are regarded as synonymous with the management characteristics of supervision whereby working conditions are created and controlled through the deliberate actions of supervisors (Kadushin 1985 : 15-16; Pettes 1979 : 46-60; Westheimer 1977 : 16-17).

3.7 Authority of the supervisor

The literature (Abramezck 1980 : 88; Kadushin 1992 i : 93; Munson 1983 : 25) generally stresses that whereas functional authority of the social worker over his client is based on his expert knowledge, the supervisor's formal authority over his supervisee is derived from his personality, knowledge, and positionary power. To exercise these forms of authority, supervisors would, however, need to be helped to adapt according to the dictates of each form.

Clear guidelines regarding supervisory duties and responsibilities ought to be provided to ease the task of exercising authority as well as to make its limits and extent more easily understood. This implies that supervisors would then be able to operate on the basis of those practical actions emanating from their expert knowledge, and use it as a basis for their authority, and not merely on the basis of a self-perception that they are authority figures in the organisational hierarchy.

As a result, the potential for assuming roles of real influence over supervisees would be substantially increased (Cronje 1986 : 144; Kadushin 1985 : 292; and 1992 i : 95-99).

The influence of the supervisor, built on his functional authority, is enacted in all his activities as a supervisor. His capability and ability to implement that influence would give him power over the supervisee, to be exercised with discretion and without coercion in decision-making in respect of rewards or corrective action.

The successful use of this triad of authority, influence, and power is therefore dependent on the presence of unambiquous objectives, clear procedures, judicious practice, self-confidence, and the added ability to improve his speculative knowledge of the ongoing interventions of his supervisees. The outcome of a well-rounded, impartial, realistic, and goal-directed form of supervision would be achieved (Kadushin 1985 : 85-103; Patti 1983 : 217-218).

Some supervisors and supervisees, however, might grapple with this concept of supervision on the grounds that its use is antithetical to social work practice. That is, that autonomy is both the background on which supervisors operate, and the practice for which supervisees are prepared in training. Whereas these considerations are valid, it is equally valid to assume that supervision is a necessary supplement to direct service, but one that would have to be used only when situations demand it,

especially wherein the achievement of organisational objectives is dependent on it (Kadushin 1985 : 98-99; Munson 1983 : 25; Patti 1983 : 217). It is further assumed that the more experienced the supervisee becomes, the more he would qualify for consultation with his supervisor rather than remain under the level of supervision geared for the inexperienced supervisee.

In the approach to supervisors and supervisees in the practice, it was found that the predominant number of supervisors and supervisees responded in favour of the type of authority of the supervisor that arises from his knowledge and good judgement. In refering to their own supervisors, a relatively similar number of supervisees also felt that their supervisors were able to exercise authority in meeting their career aspirations, like recommending promotions. The totals in Table 3.8 below show the latter findings as well as how the 21 supervisors and 84 supervisees responded to the other suggested ways in which authority might be exercised. They had been given the option of selecting all or some of the examples given. Since some respondents exercised this option, the numerical totals and percentages in Table 3.8 do not, therefore, tally with the total of the universe for the groups of supervisors and supervisees.

Table 3.8 Authority of the supervisor

	Supervisors	Supervisees
Expecting supervisees to agree with the supervisor	0% (0)	11% (9)
Recommending disciplinary action	14% (3)	7% (6)
Applying pressure to enforce suggestions if supervisees are unwilling to accept them	0% (0)	11% (9)
Recommending promotions	29% (6)	41% (34)
Possessing knowledge and good judgement in areas in which the supervisor have more training and experience than supervisees	43% (9)	45% (38)

The weighting of the scores in Table 3.8 above reflects a predominant number of supervisors and supervisees who regarded the supervisors' possession of extra knowledge and good judgement derived from increased experience and training as their main source of authority. This finding corresponds with Kadushin's (1992 iii : 6-8) similar research result that the majority of supervisees had seen supervisors as having these professional strengths in the exercise of their positions in a non-authoritarian style.

Supervisors and supervisees in the survey also voluntarily suggested the following ways whereby guidelines for duties and responsibilities of supervisors might limit supervisory authority, and which seem to validate the above literature:

* Supervisors should exercise their authority in a non-prescriptive way ;
* Supervisors must recognise good work in the exercise of

their positionary and functional authority rather than abrogate the work of the supervisee by excessive authority.

3.8 Opportunity for innovative change

The authority that supervisors hold as their right in social work practice is also accompanied by the opportunity to introduce innovative change in the supervisory role, and in the practice of the supervisee. This would imply the potential and challenge for innovations in the supervisory functions and thus in the way administrative, educational, and supportive needs of supervisors and supervisees are met (Kadushin 1985 : 76-81, and 1992 i : 75; Middleman and Rhodes 1985 : 36-38).

However, the introduction of innovations by supervisors might evoke poor responses and indignation by supervisees who fail to understand and accept suggested changes. For example, persistence by supervisors to introduce 3-monthly work appraisal sessions for supervisees could cause supervisee indignation; suggestions for the use of external sources to resolve conflict may evoke resentment in supervisees; suggestions for new administrative systems or self-management of their work may make inexperienced supervisees non-accepting and uneasy; suggestions that outside help to respond to supervisee learning needs be elicited may cause supervisees to question their worth as supervisors. These reactions present a challenge to the supervisor to create the opportunity for innovative changes to supervisory systems. Supervisors should, for example, convince the organisation of the need for innovation and the various administrative aspects involved. They should also allow supervisees to participate in

the planning of changes that would innovate procedures affecting them directly. Once this initial opportunity is created, it would then be logical that the dimensions of proposed changes could then be jointly gone into by the supervisor and supervisees. Consequently, supervisees might feel more motivated to subscribe to, and implement, the supervisory changes the planning of which they participated in. They might also be encouraged to devise innovations meant for their own practice (Kadushin 1985 : 80).

The use of innovations by supervisors and supervisees was found to be prominent in their particular practice settings. This finding echoes the elements highlighted in the above discussion. The innovative actions listed in Table 3.9 below are therefore those that were put to supervisors and supervisees. The 21 supervisors and 84 supervisees who responded were given the option of responding to any one or more of the examples shown in the Table. This is shown by the scores obtained.

Table 3.9 Innovative actions by supervisors and supervisees

Supervisors		**Supervisees**	
Use new administrative styles	100% (21)	Use new administrative styles	100% (84)
Engage external sources to resolve conflict	33% (7)	Engage external sources to resolve conflict	40% (34)
Allow supervisees to self-manage their work	90% (19)	Make use of opportunity to self-manage own work	88% (74)
Link supervisees to outside sources to meet learning needs	100% (21)	Use outside sources to meet learning needs	100% (84)

N=21 supervisors; N=84 supervisees

The finding that all supervisors were able to innovate in administrative styles, and transcend organisational boundaries by tapping outside learning resources for their supervisees, is suggestive of a healthy aggregation of management thinking, professional judgement, self-image, and confidence in exploiting the challenge of innovation. It also conveys the impression that supervisors were willing to adopt new ways of combining resources from outside and within the organisation, an approach that corresponds well with the entrepreneurial practice so prevalent in general management situations (Amit 1993 : 817).

It further reflects a strong exercise by supervisors of their role as initiators of change. They are close enough to the frontline of operation where supervisees operate from, and can thus initiate innovation through advocacy and the horizontal utilisation of their professional insight, authority, and ability to convince supervisees about the need for innovation (Bunker and Wijnberg 1988 : 324; Middleman and Rhodes 1985 : 36-38).

Together with the evidently strong belief in the autonomous role that supervisees should be granted in the management of their work, supervisors in the survey had shown equally well that they accepted limitations to their skills, knowledge, and attributes. However, the low counts by supervisors and supervisees for the engagement of external sources to resolve conflict could mean that help of this sort within the organisations concerned was sufficient, or reflected a reluctance to seek outside assistance (Delbecq 1978 : 310).

The other more specific scores by supervisees and supervisors must be interpreted as reflecting on positive supervisor-supervisee relationships. These relationships were nonetheless subject to the authority of supervisors who were portrayed as having the role of innovators and who allowed their supervisees to innovate in the way they carry out managerial tasks, or exposed them to sources of learning other than themselves.

3.9 Delegation by supervisors

The act of delegation is generally described as one that indicates how an assigned task is to be accomplished vis-a-vis indicating what has to be done. This is thus the function of the supervisor who delegates tasks, authority, or responsibility to his supervisees, an action that has been found by previous empirical studies to be a strong expressed need by both supervisors and supervisees (Kadushin 1985 : 58, 443-445).

The delegating act, however, does not mean that the supervisor thereby abrogates his authority or responsibility to the supervisee. Rather it is to be perceived as a sharing of authority between the supervisee and the supervisor. In that sharing the supervisee is considered capable of undertaking executive responsibility for the task at hand. Its outcome, however, remains the responsibility of the supervisor, who is **respondeat superior** and therefore accountable for the delegated task (Durst 1988 : 93-94; Kadushin 1985 : 59).

Driven by a strong inclination for independence, freedom from the constraints of structure including that associated with the supervisory role, and assumed knowledge, experience, and ability, some supervisees might urge their supervisors to grant them an open-ended form of delegation which would give them more carte blanche in tasks that supervisors would likely be responsible for. In such cases, it would be left to supervisors to show trust and confidence in the supervisees by allowing them to accept reasonable delegation of tasks within specific limits. Other supervisees might not be perceived in this way on the basis of their apparent lack of knowledge, experience, ability, and self-confidence. In either case, the supervisors ought to respond as realistically as possible so that the act of delegation does not impinge adversely on the quality of supervision (Kadushin 1985 : 60; Mandel 1973 : 43-54; Pettes 1979 : 10).

Delegated action can take the form of many practical tasks that would be the enactment of the main supervisory functions of administration, education, and support. Although they overlapped in various ways, the examples of these tasks put to supervisors and supervisees in the empirical study focussed on learning opportunities, clerical tasks, and resolution of interactional difficulties. They drew responses that clearly validated the above contentions that delegated roles are fulfilled in different ways by supervisors. Also, that supervisees respond differently to delegation. The scores shown in Table 3.10 below reflect these findings, as well as the fact that the 21 respondents supervisors

and 84 supervisees could select more than one of the forms of delegation put them.

Table 3.10 Delegation in respect of supervisors and supervisees

	Supervisors	Supervisees
Chairing of group meetings	36% (8)	36% (30)
Resolving of peer conflict among supervisees	100% (21)	15% (13)
Drawing up of agenda for group discussions	67% (14)	27% (23)
Monitoring of use of agency vehicles	36% (8)	9% (8)
Controling use of office facilities	67% (14)	25% (21)
Organising of staff development programmes	100% (21)	22% (19)
Planning office routine	67% (14)	25% (21)
Completing of practical tasks, eg ordering of office stationery	67% (14)	25% (21)

N=21 supervisors
N=84 supervisees

The data in Table 3.10 above reflect a strong supervisor confidence in the capacity of their supervisees to take on responsibility for tasks and responsibilities that were otherwise restricted to supervisors. The act of delegation would nonetheless involve only a portional assignment of the supervisors' total work load to supervisees yet accomplishing the completion of more work (Griffin 1993 : 272; Kadushin 1992 i : 56-60).

The varying degrees to which supervisees indicated the extent to which professional tasks were delegated must be interpreted as

having been dictated by their respective organisational settings, and not as any generally perceived practice. It was, for example, found that all responding supervisors had allowed supervisees to resolve their own conflict, as well as to organise programmes for their own development. Irrespective of the various degrees to which the tasks were delegated to supervisees, the findings emphasised the practice of a dispersion of functions to supervisees. Hurlbert (1992 : 63) observes that '...supervisors cannot do everything alone ' and that dispersion or delegation is practiced as a form of '...influence-sharing as well as engaging the talents of workers through empowerment'.

In accordance with Durst's roles of delegation (1988 : 93), a further interpretation of Table 3.10 would highlight the following significant elements :

(a) Supervisors had shown trust and a positive attitude in their unanimous preparedness to allow supervisees to resolve their own conflict, and to take decisions on how to meet their learning needs. This opportunity might encourage initiative and nurture the ability to set goals and objectives.

(b) Ninety one percent (76) of supervisees appeared to have not had the task of controlling the use of agency vehicles delegated to them. This practice emphasises the perpetuation of the controlling role of the supervisors in their situations.

(d) The tasks of compiling agenda, controlling the use of office facilities, planning office routine, and other practical tasks like stationery ordering, may be termed less responsible, clerical ones that do not require the scale of decision-making

that the other tasks might entail. It is thus assumed that the 67% (14) supervisors had delegated these tasks on the latter grounds. This practice, however, did not apply to the supervisors of responding supervisees who scored a lowly 25% (21) for each of these administrative and clerical actions.

3.10 Summary

In this chapter the professional makeup of supervisors was discussed and evaluated as a range of characteristics that have a direct link with the various ways in which supervision is practiced in the supervisor-supervisee relationship.

The discussion was initiated with a focus on the ethical foundation on which the supervisor's performance is based. This was followed by discussion and conclusions on the formal qualifications of supervisors, and how they used their experience, skills, and attributes in the fulfilment of traditional expectations.

The above characteristics were further treated as the composite whole from which supervisors derived their authority and which they were described as having to retain in all interactions with supervisees. The discussion thus drew attention to the introduction of innovative change and appropriate delegation to supervisees.

The evaluation of the theoretical bases of the supervisor role proposed by the literature was augmented by the findings of the

empirical findings. As will be noted in similar use of these findings in other parts of the research, some of the perceptions of supervisors and supervisees were found to have differed significantly on the basis of their different roles in the supervisory situation.

CHAPTER 4

MANAGEMENT PRACTICE OF SUPERVISORS AND SUPERVISEES

4.1 Introduction

Supervisors' and supervisees' practice of managerial principles, functions, and styles are implicit in the many components of supervision discussed in Chapters Two and Three. Those principles, functions, and styles might also be subject to obstacles that could impede satisfactory practice.

In this chapter the theoretical and practical dimensions of the managerial principles, functions, styles, and their possible impediments are discussed. This discussion is considered as a backdrop to the subsequent discussion of participatory management by supervisors and supervisees.

4.2 Definition of management

Whilst there is some ambivalence about the interchangeability of the terms 'management' and 'administration ' in the social work lexicon, a general definition of management sees it as a process of planning, organising, leading, and controlling the work of organisation members, including the use of all organisational resources to reach stated organisational goals. When applied to a human service setting, this definition firstly implies that it is a multi-dimensional process that is much broader than merely the exercise of the responsibility for organising and overseeing social service delivery. Secondly, it sees management as a way

of showing precedence of organisational goals over individual goals (Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 1-2; Patti 1983 : 14; Skidmore 1983 : 14; Slavin 1985 : xviii; Stoner and Freeman 1989 : G4).

By focussing the multi-dimensionality of management more narrowly on the supervisory setting wherein both the supervisor and the supervisee are professionals, Glastonbury et al (1987 : 13) expand on the definition of management by contending that supervisors are expected to perform a complex activity '... because it is both a managerial and a consultative process, in which the supervisor is manager, trainer, second opinion, evaluator, support-provider, resource controller and guardian of clients'. Although the separation of the managerial process from the educational, evaluative, supportive, controlling, and guardianship processes is not a generally held interpretation, Glastonbury's (1987 : 13) expansion nonetheless succeeds in highlighting the relative importance of the many roles played by the supervisor vis-a-vis those of the supervisee whose managerial tasks of planning, organising and controlling would be limited to his own caseload. In both cases, however, the process would assume a particular cyclical pattern or duration, whereby those roles identified are continual, interconnected, and sequential. This pattern or duration would take place in a particular way having a beginning, a duration, an end, and a new beginning once again (Cronje 1986 : 40).

When viewed from another perspective, the management practice of the supervisor and supervisee would reflect an holistic approach

of incorporating all appropriate variables in the endeavour to attain that which '...ought to be 'and on the strength of a sound principles and values base. This approach would correspond with the normative perspective for social work administration developed by Ables and Murphy (1981 : 9-17) and Patti (1983 : 150-162).

The prerequisites for the implementation of this approach would be that the supervisor or supervisee would have the additional knowledge appropriate to the task at hand, that they would be guided by a certain ethical morality, that they would enjoy professional autonomy, and that they would have public protection as professionals. In the latter respects, their management skills would be called upon; a connection between the community and themselves must be geared to aspire to the 'common good' of the community; and, their professional autonomy and protection as professionals should be ensured by means of exposure to the recipient community and appropriate recognition by the profession (Ables and Murphy 1981 : 11-13).

Definitions of management by five supervisors and sixteen supervisees in the empirical study predominantly complied well with the overall perception of management as a process concerned with broad as well as individual planning, controlling, leading, and organising functions. To a lesser degree, supervision and guidance, educating, and evaluation were included in definitions reflecting the supervisors' and supervisees' uncertainty about them. The latter nevertheless corresponds with the contention

that supervisors as middle-managers integrate their educative and administrative functions in the exercise of their supervisory roles (Joubert 1988 : 6).

Those supervisors and supervisees who prefered to define management in a social service or supervisory context, alluded frequently to the role of supervisors to plan work processes in consultation with themselves; to their need to take the lead in all relevant initiatives; to their obligation to exercise control; and, to their organisational, evaluative, supportive, and educative functions. Throughout these definitions the frequent reference to collaborative conditions between supervisor and supervisee was significantly high.

Other, more specific allusions to work processes associated with the managerial function were those of efficient use of time, the importance of human relations and communication, mutual agreement on goals and objectives, and the process of nurturing supervisees until their eventual independence. To some extent therefore, these references are consistent with the normative approach, and the pursuit of increased autonomy for supervisees (Ables and Murphy 1981 : 10-14).

4.3 Management functions

There are both similarities and differences in the managerial functions of supervisors and supervisees as identified by the literature and the present empirical study. For example, O'Connor (1988 : 97-106) stipulates that social workers are

required to have a generic or ecological approach in the self-coordination of their work and the use of appropriate resources to reach their goals. It is his further view that this is part of the principal expectation of the managerial role that direct-service personnel has to play, in pursuit of providing the services that clients are entitled to. The supervisor, on the other hand, would be expected to play several broader roles in fulfilling managerial functions than merely the caseload management of supervisees.

In keeping with Mintzberg's (Henry Mintzberg 1973, cited by Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 5) roles that managers are likely to perform, Kadushin's (1985 : 20, 53-58, and 67) descriptions of the supervisor's administrative, educational, and supportive functions, as well as specific tasks to fulfil these, Austin's (1981 : 102-107) and Dinerman's (1992 : 1-9) case management outlines, and Crow and Odewahn's (1987 : 4-6) description of the functions that may be assigned to managers, the following are to be viewed as the standard managerial performance of supervisors:

(1) The performance of informational roles in the planning, controlling, and evaluating of the work of supervisees. These functions would entail the filtering of information for the purposes of setting goals, objectives, and devising workplans; feedback to supervisees of other information that is relevant to them, like new salary scales.

(2) The performance of decisional roles in the planning, organising, and controlling of supervisee work and assignments,

as well as the educating and supporting of the supervisee. These roles could entail the devising and implementation of new social service programmes; changing of administrative procedures; the assignment of work tasks or the redesigning of evaluation techniques.

(3) The performance of interpersonal roles in leading, educating, and supporting supervisees. These could entail the motivation of supervisees in the team; the transmission of new knowledge on social work practice or other relevant information; or, reducing the supervisee's level of stress through the encouragement of his worth and better ways of avoiding psychological overloading.

Clearly, the performance of the above roles reflects a general overlapping by virtue of their versatility in relation to the different activities that they represent. These might be further defined in terms of specific actions that are more task-specific in the practice setting.

In the effort to firstly establish the extent to which the functions of planning, organising, leading, controlling, educating, and supporting were taken as management functions in practice, supervisors and supervisees expressed a unanimous acceptance that these were indeed such functions. Their responses are summarised in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1 Supervisors' and supervisees' perception of managerial functions

	N=21 Supervisors	N=84 Supervisees
Planning	100% (21)	100% (84)
Organising	100% (21)	100% (84)
Leading	100% (21)	100% (84)
Controlling	76% (16)	77% (65)
Educating	67% (14)	70% (59)
Supporting	67% (14)	71% (60)

Supervisors and supervisees were given the opportunity to select any or all of the functions listed in Table 4.1. Whereas the scores in this Table are clear evidence that supervisors and supervisees had unanimously regarded planning, organising, and leading as management functions, there was some dissent among them about granting the same status to controlling, educating, and supporting. This finding might have indicated a lack of insight in the functions or definition of management or simply a difference in perception as far as these concern the supervisor's managerial functions. It is nevertheless noteworthy that supervisors and supervisees were equal in their uncertainty.

By specifying actions that may illustrate all the managerial functions shown in Table 4.1, a series of examples of managerial functions were put to the same supervisors and supervisees. These functions are to be viewed as the overal manifestation of how, in the process of managing, supervisors or supervisees would combine and coordinate physical, human, and informational

resources in order to reach goals (Griffin 1993 : 4-5).

The overwhelming responses of supervisors and supervisees in favor of these functions are included in Table 4.2 below, depicting the extent to which they had frequently practised or experienced them in the supervisory situations at the time of the study. These examples of functions were not included at random since they are constantly referred to in the literature as commonly practised by social service administrators and supervisors (Ables and Murphy 1981; Austin 1981; Crow and Odewahn 1987; Kadushin 1985; Miringoff 1980; Patti 1983; Weiner 1982). The 21 supervisors and 84 supervisees were able to respond to any or all of the examples listed in Table 4.2 as may be seen by the scores obtained for each item.

Table 4.2 Supervisors' and supervisees' perception of the frequent application of supervisory functions

	N-21 Supervisors	N=84 Supervisees
Planning		
choosing work aids	88% (18)	71% (60)
goal-setting	77% (16)	74% (62)
setting of objectives	77% (16)	87% (73)
assessing work situations	77% (16)	76% (64)
identifying barriers and limitations	77% (16)	78% (65)
developing work plans and strategy	77% (16)	71% (60)
using techniques in planning, eg charts	66% (14)	71% (60)
Organising		
task setting	88% (18)	89% (75)
allocating work	88% (18)	73% (61)
establishing links between supervisees	88% (18)	73% (61)
coordinating work of the team	88% (18)	82% (69)
monitoring work of the team	88% (18)	74% (62)
orientating of recruits	88% (18)	66% (55)
Leading		
clarifying vision and mission	66% (14)	79% (66)
clarifying contingency factors	100% (21)	74% (62)
establishing intra-team relations	66% (14)	68% (57)
setting path for goal attainment	88% (18)	71% (60)
motivating supervisees	88% (18)	65% (55)
making decisions and solving problems	88% (18)	87% (73)
allowing self-leading	88% (18)	69% (58)
Controlling		
setting criteria for management structures	66% (14)	71% (60)
designing data gathering mechanisms	100% (21)	71% (60)
measuring performance and results	100% (21)	79% (66)
correcting outcome discrepancies	77% (16)	71% (60)
Educating		
transmitting knowledge	77% (16)	66% (55)
transmitting values	77% (16)	66% (55)
transmitting skills	100% (21)	57% (48)
Supporting		
facilitating personal growth	77% (16)	57% (48)
sustaining morale	88% (18)	57% (48)
increasing sense of worth	88% (18)	58% (49)
encouraging sense of security	77% (16)	52% (44)
encouraging sense of belonging	77% (16)	52% (44)

The findings reflected in Table 4.2 above is a clear validation of the extensive findings of Menefee and Thompson (1994: 1-25) that supervisor-managers combine interpersonal competence with technological acumen in the performance of the many forms of human and administrative actions listed.

Apart from clear differences of perception between supervisors and supervisees, Table 4.2 also depicts specific managerial functions that show these differences more profoundly than others. These are :

(a) Supervisees saw their supervisors as engaging considerably more frequently in: the planning functions of setting objectives, the organising functions of setting tasks and coordinating the work of supervisees, and the leading function of making decisions and solving problems. This finding denotes a good exercise of the administrative-managerial role of supervisors, though one which Kadushin (1992 ii : 17) in his research among 483 supervisors had found to be least preferred, or disliked, by them.

(b) Whereas all participating supervisors said that they frequently clarified contingency factors, designed data-gathering mechanisms, measured performance and results, and transmitted skills, a correspondingly lesser number of supervisees were prepared to say the same about their supervisors. This finding adds further weight to the fact that because of the differences in positionary status, a consequent perceptual difference about supervision was created.

(c) The 'supporting' function, the only one of the six functions for which the predominant scores for supervisees for the various examples were recorded as significantly lower than those for supervisors, would signify that this managerial function is not well practised or perceived in practice. It also validates the earlier finding shown in Table 4.1 (p 98) that supervisors and supervisees were equally unsure of 'support' as a managerial function expected of supervisors. Of special note in this regard is the conclusion that the supervisors' attention to aspects such as personal growth, morale, sense of worth, security, and belonging of supervisees were features of the supportive role of supervisors of which the supervisees were comparatively more deprived than the other examples of managerial functions.

When viewed in conjunction with the comments on, and support for, the continued use of participatory management that the supervisors and supervisees had made and which are discussed in other parts of the research, the above findings validated much of the conceptual and practical implementation of that mode of management.

4.4 Management styles

Style is defined by the Universal Dictionary (Readers Digest 1994 : 1506) as the way in which an act is done, written, said, or shown. A refinement of this definition would describe style as the attempt at communicating with others through patterns of behaviour that should be focussed and deliberate.

Applied in a managerial sense, the supervisor and supervisee would use style to articulate their theoretical orientation, the philosophy of supervision and practice they hold, and the particular manner in which they would convey it to their supervisees or clients. This represents a range of elements that could assume distinctive features that may be, or have effects that are, different or similar to those found in the style of others.

Research by Handley (1982 : 508-515) has demonstrated that the cognitive styles of supervisors and supervisees have an effect on the interactional relationship in supervision. He had also shown that understanding of the supervisory relationship and the enhancement of satisfaction with supervision would depend on their awareness of their cognitive styles. By implication it is clear that the management style of the supervisor and supervisee could be positively or negatively influenced by their cognitive styles.

There is a wide range of managerial styles used by supervisors of direct-service practice. Furthermore, Keys and Ginsberg (1988 : 7) mention factors such as social, psychological, professional, and philosophical considerations that are inherent in these different styles and which impinge on supervisors' particular managerial behavior, of which the cognitive factor is a tangible example.

Strong echoes of Ables and Murphy's (1981 : 3-14) normative concepts of social, psychological, professional, and philosophical considerations are to be found in the formulations for successful, satisfying, and **responsible** management by Michael Durst (1988 : 68-69), a contemporary of Keys and Ginsberg (1988). He details how styles of management could be 'responsible' by means of positive relations, positive emotional responses, correct intellectual and professional processes, and spiritual or philosophical involvement that is tinged with high ethics and dedication in the work that has to be done. The management styles of supervisors and supervisees are indeed primarily concerned with these elements, and with the focus on production and the people whom they serve. Also, that supervisors' and supervisees' personal perspectives and dispositions would thus influence their managerial style.

In a study that explored the various supervisory styles of social work supervisors employed in the Department of Human Resources, Texas, Russel et al (1985 : 150) had found that of 44 supervisors and 510 supervisees surveyed, the overwhelming majority of them indicated that the style of supervision used had fallen in Blake and Mouton's (1985 : 12) 'impoverished management' category, signifying a minimum concern for people (supervisees) and for production. This meant that the supervisory style used minimum effort to get required work done, and was thus adequate to merely sustain organisation membership (Blake and Mouton 1985 : 12). Russel et al's findings (1985 : 150) that supervisors and

supervisees were not inclined towards the other four of Blake and Mouton's now well-known management styles, as represented in their 'Managerial Grid' (1985 : 12) and detailed in the discussion below, reflected poorly on their adherence to considerations of the minimum relational, emotional, intellectual, professional, and ethical bases of supervisory and practice management.

Supervisors and supervisees who do subscribe and use management styles of their choice would invariably do so in close correspondence with any of those included in the 'Managerial Grid' of Blake and Mouton (1985 : 12). This 'Grid', regarded as an excellent reflection of the 'production'and 'people' types of management styles of Russel et al (1984 : 3) also has implications for how supervisors and supervisees lead and direct (Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 72). An adaptation of these styles would indicate that supervisor and supervisee styles may take on any of the following forms:

* 'Country club management' - the thoughtful attention to the needs of supervisees or clients for satisfying relationships leading to a comfortable, friendly organisation atmosphere and work tempo.
* 'Organisation-man management' - balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of supervisees or clients at a satisfactory level, regarded as adequate organisation performance.
* 'Team management' - accomplishing work through committed supervisees, and interdependence through a common stake in

organisation purpose which would lead to relationships of trust and respect between supervisors and supervisees, or between supervisees and clients.

* 'Authority-obedience' management - achieving efficiency in operations through arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere minimally.

Supervisors in practice at the time of the research, however, showed no distinct preference for any one of the above styles. This was established through the responses to an adapted form of those descriptions of styles of Blake and Mouton (1985), and shown in Table 4.3 below. Supervisors could select any one or more of the examples listed.

Table 4.3 Management styles of supervisors (self-view)

N=21

Thoughtful attention to needs of supervisees	95% (20)
A 'team approach', by encouraging supervisees in their team to trust and respect each other	95% (20)
Balance of the necessity to get work done with maintaining the morale of supervisees at a satisfactory level	81% (17)
Arrangement of work conditions by which human elements interfere minimally	71% (15)
Minimum effort to get required work done	67% (14)

Clearly, the findings shown in Table 4.3 above is conclusive evidence that the primary concern of the supervisors surveyed was the professional gratification of supervisees, who were subjected

to a well-balanced, considerate form of management composed of both work-related and person-related emphases.

In answer to a similar question put to supervisees with regard to their own management styles in direct work, a corresponding spread in the use of management styles in relation to their work and their clients was achieved. In this case, the same styles of management taken from the above literature were put to supervisees, with appropriate adaptation. The scores obtained and reflecting the supervisees' self-view are shown in Table 4.4. Supervisees could select any one or more of the examples listed.

Table 4.4 Management styles of supervisees (self-view)

N=84

Thoughtful attention to the needs of clients	98% (82
A 'team-care' approach, by encouraging peers in their team to trust and respect each other	98% (82)
Balance of the necessity to get work done with maintaining their own morale at a satisfactory level	88% (74)
Minimum effort to get required work done	79% (66)
Arrangement of work conditions by which human elements interfere minimally	76% (64)

It is significant that, as was found in the case of the supervisors, supervisees were predominantly inclined to the 'people' categories. This appears to denote the firm inclination by both groups towards styles of management focussed on the realisation of the effect that satisfactory psychological states

of those dependent on their help and guidance would have on 'production' (Russel et al 1984 : 3). Supervisees' combined response also reflects a sense of responsibility, caring, professional attitudes, and willingness to produce work efficiently. These attributes appear well suited for egalitarian forms of management between supervisees and their supervisors.

4.5 Practice difficulties

Since social work practice, supervision, and management are distinct though potentially compatible professional activities, it would not be unrealistic to find difficulties in their actual integration. On the one hand, supervisors and supervisees could experience difficulties in fulfilling their managerial roles due to lack of knowledge, insight, and experience in management. On the other hand, they might be hindered by external circumstances that impede their managerial functioning.

Supervisors and supervisees who show little or no understanding or awareness that the management of their workloads are, according to Crow and Odewahn (1987 : 2), not only goal-directed but have a common purpose, are bound to experience difficulties. In situations where this lack of understanding and awareness is present, supervisors and supervisees might, for example, show high levels of insecurity and poor morale; set targets that do not converge adequately and fail to reach them; experience poor coordination of their work; use control systems introduced by supervisors that are regarded as too austere and a way of policing supervisees; have workloads that are perceived

as cumbersome by both supervisors and supervisees; and, use evaluation procedures that become administrative rituals. These actions could also be interpreted as a further indication of the antithesis and incongruence between social work and management, the former having strong 'person' and democratic leanings and the latter based on structural approaches (Bamford 1982 : 144).

The view by Bamford (1982 : 144) above is not shared by writers such as Crow and Odewahn (1987 : 2) who state that management is a cooperative venture. This implies that unless the supervisor motivates his supervisees to engage in their activities in a cooperative partnership with him and among themselves, they will not reach nor be able to converge their personal, team or organisational goals successfully. The further implication is that task goals cannot be successfully pursued unless the supervisor and the supervisee are able to see eye to eye on the importance of working together. Without the congruence of their thoughts and actions, each would devise a plan of action independent of the other, the establishment of a working relationship between them will be retarded, the supervisors' leadership and direction will be adversely affected, and the evaluation and control of performance will not be conducted in an open, reciprocal fashion.

A factor that would compound and exascerbate these management difficulties in the direct relationship between the supervisor and the supervisee would be the lack of awareness by either professional of the political, social, ethical, and

organisational conditions that impinge on the managerial aspect of their performance. These conditions are critical elements in general management and would be equally so in the practice of supervisors and supervisees (Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 2-14).

In the approach to supervisors found in practice at the time of the research, it was established that they had, to varying degrees, experienced the examples of management difficulties put to them. The scores obtained for each of those examples are reflected in Table 4.5. Supervisors could select any one or more of the examples listed.

Table 4.5 Management difficulties experienced by supervisors.

N=21

Supervisees disregard direction offered in the management of their work	88% (18)
Supervisees disregard training offered	14% (3)
Teams are poorly coordinated	76% (16)
Supervisees are opposed to evaluation of their work	14% (3)
Supervisees are opposed to the control function of the supervisor	24% (5)

In Table 4.5 it is noted that supervisors experienced the greatest difficulty in making supervisees acknowledge the direction they offered to them in the management of their work, as well as in coordinating the work of their teams. This result lends some validity to Bamford's (1982 : 144) view that because management is given to structural perspectives and social work

is bent on a democratic orientation, any practice of fundamentally managerial roles would not be well received by direct practice workers or even practiced by supervisors themselves.

On the contrary, the supervisors's predominantly good experience in having their training of supervisees, and the evaluation and controlling of their work, accepted by their supervisees reflects an acknowledgement of the role and authority of the supervisors to whom they were accountable.

In answer to the question whether they could identify the probable causes of their management difficulties, few supervisors responded. Those who responded, however, did so to the extent shown in Table 4.6 below, indicating an unwillingness to ascribe any of the listed examples as causes of their management difficulties. Although the question put to them also asked for other reasons which might have been regarded as causes, none of the supervisors offered any. Supervisors could nonetheless select any one or more of the examples listed.

Table 4.6 Probable causes of management difficulties experienced by supervisors
N=21

Lack of organisation	48% (10)
Poor overall planning	10% (2)
Inadequate or in appropriate control system	5% (1)
Poor application of leadership role	0% (0)
Lack of appropriate knowledge and training in management	0% (0)

Supervisors predominantly claimed, as portrayed in Table 4.6 above, that a lack of organisation was the primary cause of their management difficulties. This may be accepted as a very legitimate cause since organisational ability would be likely to include as well as overlap with much of the other causes listed.

Supervisees included in a similar approach at the time of the research responded in like fashion in their admission of management difficulties in their work situations. They could select any one or more of the examples listed. Their responses shown below in Table 4.7 also largely confirmed the likely absence of the fundamental elements of management discussed earlier.

Table 4.7 Management difficulties experienced by supervisees

N=84

Targets are not reached within time-frames	82% (69)
Peers respond poorly to training offered	16% (13)
Workload activities are too many to coordinate	54% (45)
Evaluation of own work is inadequate	68% (57)
Own control of work is fragmented and inadequate	21% (18)
High levels of insecurity and poor morale remain despite supportive aid	71% (60)

Whereas time-management by the supervisees was their biggest difficulty as shown in Table 4.7 above, a team effort to be of emotional help to each other in their respective situations did not raise motivation to achieve. Closely linked to these difficulties are poor evaluation performance and coordination of workload. On the other hand, there seemed to be a willingness to

learn from each other, and a desire to control their work in a holistic and adequate way.

In answer to the question whether they could indentify the probable causes of their management difficulties, the majority of supervisees selected more than one of the examples of probable causes listed in Table 4.8 below. It must be noted that the last three causes of management difficulties given in Table 4.8 were those voluntarily identified by some respondents.

Table 4.8 Probable causes of supervisees' management difficulties

N=84

Lack of appropriate knowledge and training	62% (52)
Poor planning	55% (46)
Inadequate self-control systems	48% (40)
Poor organisation	48% (40)
Poor leadership role performance by supervisor	32% (27)
Overambitious supervisors	6% (5)
Lack of finance for self-management infra-structure	4% (3)
Agency over-emphasis of expectations of minimum-output standards rather than qualitative standards	5% (4)

The findings in Table 4.8 above reflect a predominant lack of knowledge and skill in management among the responding supervisees. Unless supervisees are able to conceive of their knowledge of management as having an action orientation as well as presenting an opportunity for development by virtue of their

engagement (and possible conflict) with their supervisors, they are not likely to overcome this difficulty (Blackler 1993: 882).

The findings also reflect the supervisees' predominant tendency to self-evaluate their own inadequacies rather than apportion blame to the shortcomings of their supervisors' leadership capabilities and over-ambitiousness, or the deficiencies in organisational resources and unrealistic expectations about production. This may be interpreted as a show of maturity on their part and therefore counts in their favor in overcoming managerial difficulties.

The management difficulties and their causes identified by supervisors and supervisees epitomise a broader practice dilemma in which the autonomy of direct service workers would be hampered should professional inadequacies and poor organisational structures be perpetuated without continual review and improvement. Some way towards a resolution of the dilemma would be achieved through adequate knowledge of the interplay between their actions and the many components of their operational environment (Blackler 1993 : 882). This situation, however, does not alter the desire of those involved to maintain their autonomy and participation in all aspects of their work, as was found in current practice.

4.6 Summary

The various definitions of management included in the discussion in this chapter contain common elements that have been shown to

be theoretically and practically appropriate to the practice of social work supervision. Those definitions can be translated into functions that are applied in the supervisory and worker situations and which assume distinctive characteristics tailored to the operational dictates of each type of situation.

This chapter had attempted to highlight these characteristics especially with the view to evaluating their application in a climate of participation, cooperation, common goal-setting, and professional respect in service rendering between supervisors and supervisees. Several actions and tasks were identified and described as demonstrations of the broader managerial functions and styles of supervisors and supervisees.

Since it was assumed that management practice would be accompanied by difficulties, the discussion elaborated on those possible ways in which supervisors and supervisees might experience them. An evaluation of probable causes of management difficulties put to supervisees and supervisors as well as some identified by themselves, were used as supporting data.

Together with the use of appropriate literature, the discussion in this chapter included an empirical perspective of current practice based on the perceptions of supervisors and supervisees. It was thus concluded that despite the several practice difficulties which supervisors and supervisees invariably experience in the managerial performance of their respective

roles as a result of internal and external factors, the management of their work would have both positive and negative consequences for their social work practice. These consequences are addressed in the discussion of the participatory forms of management that follow in the ensuing chapter.

CHAPTER 5

THE THEORETICAL BASIS OF PARTICIPATORY MANAGEMENT IN SUPERVISION

5.1 Introduction

Against the backdrop of the discussion in Chapters 3 and 4 of general management practice among supervisors and supervisees, and the allusions to participation, the presence and efficacy of participatory forms of management by supervisors and supervisees in practice can be examined and evaluated.

This chapter firstly sets out to examine and evaluate the development and practice of participatory management and how it has been reconciled with the expectations of supervision, taking into account the various ways in which it is perceived, how or to what extent it is applied, and the ground rules, principles and values which govern its implementation. Secondly, this chapter examines and evaluates the various ways in which supervisors and supervisees can implement, and improve their implementation of, the functions, methods, and techniques of participatory management.

5.2 Definition of participatory management

A cursory glance at the term 'participatory' in **participatory management** would infer the simplistic idea of participation by those who manage and those who are managed. In the practice of management in a general sense, however, participation would involve considerably more than mere 'participation'. According to Handy (1987 : 330) it would, for example, have connotations

of autonomy, participation in work group contexts, and delegation. These are but a few of several other dimensions ascribed to participatory management by the literature. There are, however, no commonly shared definitions of participatory management in the literature, although Packard (1989 : 59) draws attention to the generally accepted fact that participatory management is wholly manifested in the principle of congeniality between those involved.

For Ouchi (1981 : 66), participatory management, in its most basic form, is a collegial, consensual, and democratic form of management. Barker (1987: 28) attempts to refine this postulation by defining it as '...the procedure in which two or more professional persons work together to serve a given client. The client may be an individual, family, group, community, or population. The professionals may work relatively independently of one another but communicate and coordinate their respective efforts to avoid duplication of services, or they may work as members of a single helping team.' This definition clearly encapsulates elements of professionalism by championing independence or team-work operation, combined decision-making, a multi-situational practice capability, emphasis on the human service nature of participation, a retention of basic management procedure like coordination, the interrelational capacity of participation, and the importance of communication as its basis of operation. The sum total of these elements corresponds fully with Skidmore's (1983 : 104-105) view that several individuals working together on an equal footing can be more effective than

one person dictating direction, as well as Hardcastle's (1991 : 66-67) and Våndervelde's (1979 : 75) postulations that it involves consensual, collective production and responsibility in the sharing out of tasks. These interpretations denote a production- and people-oriented approach that relies on the strength of participants as well as the group processes associated with production.

Imundo (1980 : 98), Sashkin (1984 : 12), Stoner and Freeman (1989 : 375), and Weiner (1990 : 189) identify the collaborative nature of participatory management as: its endeavour to treat people or professionals according to merit; its overt avoidance of hierarchically imposed forms of authority; the retention of all the generally accepted components of management (planning, organising, leading, and controlling) in an appropriately adapted form in participatory forms; participation in decision-making by all concerned; and, the assignment of meritorious autonomy on the basis of professional competence and capability to those who participate.

These fundamental elements of the participatory management approach do not appear to be antithetical to social work supervision. As far as the element of interaction is concerned, Kadushin (1985 : 23) points out that the supervisor-supervisee working relationship is a '...small interlocking social system that at its best is cooperative, democratic, participatory, mutual, respectful, and open'. All these characteristics are wholly consistent with the above charcteristics, elements,

components, and nuances of the participatory management situation, implying that social work supervision is amenable to, and indeed employs, participatory approaches.

Supervision's amenability to participatory management appears especially well portrayed in its practice of retaining the layer of supervision in organisational infra-structure, with supervisors retaining their status and authority as seniors in relation to supervisees, a practice that therefore does not lead to any form of debureaucratisation within the supervisory section of agencies.

A redefinition of the supervisor's and supervisee's role is further implied. That is, the supervisor's role from one of exclusivity in authority to an egalitarian sharing with the supervisee; the latter's role from one of subordinated practice and limited self-management to participative decision-making on the basis of professional equity (Kadushin 1985 : xv; Weiner 1990 : 354).

Clearly, participatory decision-making is a fundamental component of participatory management. It is on this basis that Abels and Murphy (1981 : 13-17), and Patti (1982 : 152-162), calls for the advancement of participatory decision-making, since it brings with it advantages like democratic working relationships, a mutual awareness of 'what ought to be' and sharing in the task of setting a path towards reaching that state. Similarly,

therefore, supervisors and supervisees engaged in this form of participation would have a shared responsibility.

Imundo (1980 : 98) refutes, however, the misconception that participatory management allows for a complete equalisation of the voices of supervisors and supervisees. Rather it is proposed that supervisees should be granted opportunity for meaningful input to the decision-making process, whereas supervisors would exercise final decision-making authority. This stance would only succeed if both supervisor and supervisees have full participation in the process and both derive satisfaction from the job of human service rendering in the knowledge that they have freedom in determining what their jobs are and how they will be doing them. If, in accordance with Handy's (1987 : 31) claim, this generally accepted participation is a genuine participation, it is bound to increase the supervisor's and supervisee's motivation.

Other advantages that accompany participatory approaches in management by the supervisor and supervisee include the enhancement of the autonomy of the supervisee. In this respect, Kadushin (1985 : 471-472) draws attention to the reallocation of power as a derivative of increased autonomy, but cautions that using it as an effort at debureacratisation by simply redistributing supervisory responsibilities have been found to cause imbalances and dissatisfactions in task allocation. This signifies that participation needs to be done rationally, and with the setting of objectives in an effort to secure procedure

of acceptable and measureable control by both supervisor and supervisee.

Firmly anchored in the various views on participatory management as a form of management is the belief that it appeals to the basic values of employees, and that they desire it for themselves. When applied to supervisees, it is assumed that they wish to be given a say concerning their work; that they regard it as a form of professional treatment of themselves; and, that discrimination between themselves and their supervisors in the workplace should only be done on legitimate, ethical grounds, especially where positionary considerations are the only criteria (Imundo 1980: 98; Ouch 1981 : 129; Kakabadse 1982 : 56-57).

Notwithstanding the theoretical support for, and insights into, participatory management elucidated by the literature as well as the repeated reference to it as an accredited and contemporary form of management in general supervisory practice, supervisors and supervisees engaged in practice at the time of writing showed little significant knowledge of participatory management as a formalised managerial type. Their responses are summarised in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1 Knowledge of participatory management among supervisors and supervisees

	Yes	No	No response	
Supervisors	48% (10)	24% (5)	28% (6)	N=21
Supervisees	31% (26)	58% (49)	11% (9)	N=84

Supervisors and supervisees who professed knowledge of participatory management offered few definitions, and instead attempted vague descriptions of some of the practical implications and effects of participation. For example, they identified: the advantage of shared decision-making on more democratic lines; the achievement of equity between professionals (supervisors and supervisees); and, the easing of goal attainment through cooperation and collaboration, statements that partially validated Hardcastle's (1991:66-67), Hurlbert's (1992 : 67), and Vandervelde's (1979 : 75) contentions that participation has these characteristics and capabilities. The responses also clearly validate Thackeray et al's (1994 : 8-9) claim that participatory supervision is used in current practice albeit it in fragmented, disjointed fashion rather than as a coherent, holistic mode of management.

5.3 Development of participatory management

An examination of the literature on management approaches emanating from the latter part of the last century shows a gradual overall shift and evolution from authoritarian, directive styles, to non-directive, participative ones as the result of changing social values towards egalitarianism, legislation protecting workers' rights, high levels of formal education of workers and management, and the clout of powerful unions (Imundo 1980: 99; Weiner 1990 : 82- 85; Wren 1987 : 172-286).

In their attempt to trace the development of the above shift in management perspectives, approaches, and styles,

Weiner (1990 : 83) and Wren (1987 : 172-286) conclude with findings that show how participatory management had made its mark in practice. For the purposes of the evaluative study, those findings may be summarised as follows:

(1) A growing disenchantment in the workplace and among analysts with the autocracy of Frederick Taylor's (1903) 'scientific management' styles gave birth to strong moves to find a labor-oriented approach to serve as a counterpart of the 'scientific' management approach, which had already made an indelible contribution in the formalisation of work processes in industrial settings. In other words, a counter-balance had to be initiated by means of new ways to narrow the gap between Taylor's insistence on the 'scientific' approach of the one best method of completing a task, his separatist theory for clear demarcation of roles for workers and management personnel, and his strict standardisation of performance tasks.

(2) As a first departure from, and highly different to, the mechanistic nature of scientific management, 'humanisation' of management through real participation by employees was advocated, culminating in the introduction of union-management cooperation and employee representation plans. These occurred as indirect representation of employee rights and desires. They were designed to lubricate industrial relations between managements and workers, with the United States of America and The United Kingdom taking the lead in expanding this new era of gravitation to more worker-centred management.

(3) Focus was subsequently directed on the internal applications of how operations within organisations ought to be undertaken

with greater efficiency and effectiveness. This called for increased regard for, and more direct participation by, workers than that envisaged through unionist or representational means. The ensuing involvement of departmental managers in the planning of, and overal decision-making on, all aspects of the work task ushered in a renewed era of direct participation albeit by seniors only. It also created opportunity for managements to undergo training to better undertake the tasks ahead, and enhance their interpersonal skills. By then, 'participation' had taken root in the upper echelons of management structures, and was slowly making its presence felt in the commercial and industrial spheres.

(4) This development, however, continued to exclude the mass of subordinate workforce who could likewise have been considered in the role of legitimate contributors to decision-making processes. Exhortations followed on the basis of a 'power-equalisation' thesis, to '...play down the importance of organisational hierarchy and to give a greater voice to subordinates through participation' (Wren 1987: 283). The latter was fueled by the belief that **direct** worker participation would increase their commitment to organisational goals as well as enhance individual and group satisfactions.

(5) Following the post-war era after 1947, participation in decision-making received increasing acclaim, featuring particularly well in effectively helping workers to overcome resistance to change, opening the road for new social structures to emerge, minimising the costs of change as regards turnover, and the relearning of skills. The stage had thus been set for the

consolidation of participatory methods, the merits of which had by then been firmly entrenched in management thinking.

It may thus be concluded that since it was first conceived as an alternative to primarily production-oriented managerial systems, participatory management has consolidated its position in the general workplace on the basis of its widely recognised effectiveness in the attainment of organisational goals together with worker satisfaction. In the process it is succeeding in diffusing authority, 'flattening' organisational structures, establishing 'bottom-up'links, democratising the work process, and ultimately serving as a sharing of responsibility by all concerned in the execution of action plans. In this way it has succeeded in reversing the original, inhibitive methods of Frederick Taylor (William Given , jr. 1949, cited by Wren 1987 : 284).

Hurlbert (1992 : 64-65) writes that participatory management has in recent times been systematically considered for wider introduction in social work supervision as a constructive and acceptable managerial type, a position that is stressed by Thackeray et al (1994 : 8) who instead are of the opinion that it is widely used. This trend would thus allow the practice of supervision exposure to the above benefits also known to be enjoyed by other professions using participatory approaches. Social work supervision is further benefited by the ongoing, developmental processes, as well as hampered by the concomitant

difficulties of adjustment and conflict that may accompany participation for supervisors and supervisees.

5.4 Values and norms of participatory management

Literature on participatory management does not propose specific values or norms that might have been regarded as distinctive to it, although the definitions and practice of participatory management clearly embody those principles which are considered important in the supervisor-supervisee relationship. Apart from adopting a process of extracting those values and norms from the definitions of participatory management, it would also seem necessary to go beyond this source and conduct a search inward of supervision, and the broader field of management, to formulate clearly defined values and norms that might be made appropriate for supervision and its participatory mode of management.

Given the importance that is attached to the values and norms of supervision as enshrined in its ethical code of conduct (The Social work Act, No R 164 of 1978 Section 5 a-c), it is logical to retain them in a participatory management context. With the added inclusion of the basic social work values and principles in which the latter Code is bedded and which are echoed in the writings of contemporary writers like Ashford and Timms (1990 : 1-20), Botha (1990 : 1-7), Drower (1991 : 272-276), and Rothmund (1990 : 8-12; and 1991 : 9-13), the successful formulation of the values and normative base of participatory management by supervisors and supervisees would be significantly advanced.

Ables and Murphy (1981 : 9-17) had earlier devised a normative approach comprising a set of values and seven principles for human service agencies which, on close examination, also effectively echo the fundamental social work principles and participatory philosophy that forms the basis of the supervisor-supervisee relationship. This norming helps to determine how they should work with each other, how decisions are to be taken, what behaviors they ought to adopt, the level of their work, and the extent of openness, trust, and confidence that should prevail between them. On the basis of an appropriate adaptation of Ables and Murphy's (1981 : 9-17) thoughts and the contributions of Handy (1987 : 171), the following values and norms are identified as applicable in supervisory practice:

(1) The actions of supervisors and supervisees should lead to just consequences by way of democratic processes that would insure their dignity and respect without minimising the expertness of the supervisor.

(2) Within the democratic environment of their working relationship, supervisors and supervisees should use scientific inquiry as the major mode of gathering knowledge for their practice ends.

(3) All the decisions taken by supervisors and supervisees should be based on rational inquiry. Theirs would be a relationship of synergy that is designed to permit mutual problem-solving without the competitive element. The problems that they are bound to encounter should be differentiated on the grounds of their differing roles and functions as supervisors and supervisees; problems would, however, be seen as mutual concerns in which each

plays a part, and with which they collectively must deal. This arrangement would make the participatory mode of operation more than merely an aggregate of individual efforts. Supervisors' and supervisees' interactions would determine the degree of synergy and effectiveness that they would achieve.

(4) A system of mutual aid should permeate all that supervisors and supervisees would engage in towards achieving goals. This aid should include a continuing, appropriately shared responsibility of encouraging the maintenance of autonomy among supervisees. Supervisors can promote the values and uses of autonomy by developing and distributing to supervisees materials like self-management systems. Within the collective setting, this would mean participatory decision-making; and, ongoing supervisee development programmes, including administrative leadership development.

(5) Supervision should be the vehicle for fostering independence for supervisors and supervisees through the processes of mutual support and growth. Within the normative framework of the supervisory situation, accountability by supervisees to their supervisors should remain. Supervisors should scientifically continue to evaluate supervisees' work and give feedback in the same fashion. The sum total of the supervisors' actions could form an ethical approach to their participatory management type of supervision where any of their techniques of practice not grounded in solid proof of efficacy are identified as such to supervisees. In this way the accountability of the supervisors would go beyond the confines of their operational boundaries, and encroach on the profession so as to provide the highest level of

professional practice as participatory managers with their supervisees.

The development of the supervisors' and supervisees' practice knowledge of participatory management, including knowledge of objectives and consequences, also has implications for accountability in supervision. Its development will make accountability through the investigation of consequences by supervisors a more ordinary part of their supervisory actions and build it into the development of their professional knowledge of participatory management. Given the accountability that supervisees will have to their supervisors, and the supervisor's accountability to the profession, their responsibility to contribute to each other's knowledge of the consequences of their actions will also be a participative one (Munson 1983 : 27-29).
(6) The highest ethical level of practice should be promoted through the forms of accountability that supervisors and supervisees have. The synergistic liaison between supervisors and supervisees should be more than merely an enabling task for supervisees. It should also provide them with the roles of reconstructors and architects to achieve the just consequences of 'what ought to be' in the form of professional respect for each other's different roles and functions, and the evolvement of higher levels of implementation of the supervisory function. Where the policy of other agencies do not subscribe to participatory management in supervisory practice and 'just consequences' for supervisees and supervisors, both should take

it upon themselves to attempt reconstruction efforts to help change those policies.

(7) Supervisors should serve as guides to supervisees. For example, the latter must be helped in seeing the merits of a desired project. Rather than enforce the acceptance of a proposal simply on the grounds that they desire it, supervisors should stress the vision of what it can offer the community being served. Once the vision becomes a shared one between supervisors and supervisees, all would then be fully able to visualise its potentially positive consequences (Handy 1987 : 324).

These principles of the participatory management approach will hold no water unless certain criteria are met. Handy (1987 : 324- 326) suggests, for example, that cultural belief in the norms of democratic leadership by those involved in participatory modes of management would be essential. Since the latter can be equated with the participatory management style of supervisors and supervisees, Handy's criteria (1987 : 325) for the use of participation methods seem appropriate for determining what the styles of supervisors and supervisees ought to be:

(a) The use of participatory methods must be genuine. There should be no tokenism in allowing supervisees' participation in managerial functions. Unless this is the case, supervisees would merely comply with predetermined supervisory arrangements.

(b) The problems experienced through supervisory systems must be worth the time and effort of participation by supervisors and supervisees. Participation takes time and calls for abundant energy. Unless supervisors have effective control of the factors

determining the supervisees' output, like pre-set budgets, participation will make little difference to the improvement of the quality of supervision.

(c) The contract of participation must be clearly understood. If the team of supervisors and supervisees are asked for participatory decisions, then such decisions must be accepted.

(d) Individual supervisors and supervisees must have the skills and the knowledge to enable them to participate effectively.

(e) Supervisors must want to indulge in participatory management with supervisees and not do so because they feel they ought to.

If a team of supervisors and supervisees can meet these criteria, and not raise false hopes about participation, delegation, autonomy, and the enrichment of the jobs of supervisees, their participation in the supervisory context will be a true one. It would then result in their increased commitment, the generation of feelings for concerted efforts to achieve, and the fulfilment of their task as effective practice and management units. Their use of methods of participation would be the primary indication of the extent to which they are able to meet these criteria (Handy 1987 : 335; Pollard 1978 : 125).

5.5 Methods of participatory management

The aforegoing definitions, various descriptions, development, and normative bases of participatory management in relation to supervision has distinct implications for the achievement of greater production, efficiency, and effectiveness in the role performance of supervisors and supervisees (Hurlbert 1992:67).

The latter benefits would hinge on appropriate objectives, like the genuine commitment of both supervisors and supervisees, judicious use of resources, and the methods of operation that they apply.

Anthony (1978 : 127) maintains that '... participatory management is usually easiest to implement with professionals', and that in a participatory setting, professionals involved ought to be able to take part in virtually all aspects of their work. It may be deduced from this statement that professionals like supervisors and supervisees engaged in the participatory management approach to supervision would use methods of task completion on the basis of their separate roles and functions and in the appropriate adaptation of the standard managerial functions of planning, organising, leading, controlling, educating, and supporting.

Consistent with Weiner's (1990 : 444) systemic management techniques, supervisors would firstly define a course of action acceptable to themselves and their supervisees. This formulation would lend to the design and building of the system of participatory management, as well as the organisation of the team in whom the management of their own work is vested. Secondly, methods of a more specific nature can be formulated and applied for the realisation of participatory objectives.

The literature suggests several methods that are suitable for the implementation of participatory management. On the one hand writers on general management, like Anthony (1978 : 127)

Handy (1987 : 90 and 152), Weiner (1990 :89-90, 353, and 460) draw attention to the general workplace where participatory management is applied. On the other hand, the supervision and social administration literature (Hurlbert 1992 : 64-67; Staples 1990 : 29-42), make specific suggestions that relate to participatory practice and empowerment in supervision and which is claimed to have made their mark in practice. The suggestions from these sources overlap to a large extent, and are integrated in the following way:

(1) The supervisors and supervisees use their respective positions and roles as specific sources of expertise within the situation of supervision. In this respect, supervisors retain their seniority over supervisees who remain answerable to them.

(2) Built on the above premise, supervisors could use group techniques and work designs similar to the 'quality circles', which are especially designed as small problem-solving group gatherings by supervisors and their supervisees. These gatherings are intended to bring about improvements in the operations and management of work, wherein supervisors and supervisees contribute according to their different levels of expertise, knowledge, and experience (Griffin 1993 : 243).

(3) Supervisors and supervisees respond to situations by internalisation; that is, an initial retention of information received from one another within the cooperative system of the team setting, followed by a focussing of their energies on making the team function more effectively.

(4) Influence of supervisors on supervisees takes place by persuasion as well as by the authority vested in their position.

This technique implies that they ought to establish sound interrelations with supervisees. Influence derived from it might be easier to accomplish.

(5) Participatory planning sessions include decision-making on supervisors' and supervisees' workday and workweek so that informational communication is fully achieved through the exchange of information on how each fulfil their respective roles and obligations.

In answer to the question whether they had any general comments to make, a small percentage of the supervisors and supervisees in the empirical study voluntarily suggested methods of applying the participatory actions that they used or envisaged for themselves in managerial roles. These suggestions correspond in a broad sense with the above literature, and have to be evaluated in the light of the fact that the respondents were engaged in supervision at the time of the study and therefore able to make realistic suggestions. The latter are shown in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2 Methods of applying participatory management

	N=21 Supervisors	N=84 Supervisees
Joint decision-making among supervisors and supervisees	10% (2)	12% (10)
Tasks are delegated on the basis of capability	14% (3)	23% (19)
Team meetings are run on equal terms and on democratic lines	10% (2)	7% (6)
Group planning of work tasks is lead by supervisors	10% (2)	11% (9)

The references in Table 5.2 to elements such as participatory decision-making, delegation, democracy, and participatory planning reflect the respondent supervisors' and supervisees' own interpretation of how participatory management is applied in their own situations. Their interpretation nonetheless corresponds to a large extent with the definitions of participatory management by the literature. They also validate the contention that democracy in the practice of social work has advanced from a mere representative to a participatory type through self-action, self-definition, and egalitarian modes of operation (Herman 1991 : 26; Staples 1990 : 31).

5.6 Summary

In this chapter, participatory management has been shown to have its own distinctive characteristics. The discussion of the latter had drawn on the literature and the views of supervisors and supervisees in terms of the nature, goals, objectives, history, value and normative basis, and methods whereby participatory management is implemented in some situations, or might be implemented in others.

Of particular note has been the unanimity with which it was accepted as an acknowledged management approach for contemporary use and one that has proven validity, efficacy, and reliability. Its many features was shown to enjoy widespread acceptance, it has the capacity to continually produce the expected results in management, and it is a management approach that can be depended

upon as a way of achieving efficiency and effectiveness in supervision.

The development of participatory management as an approach practised in the general workplace was traced in broad sketches. This historical overview was to illustrate how it had succeeded in gaining a growing recognition as a bona fide mode of management, and how it assumed some status as a means of gaining recognition of the worker as a participant in organisational goal attainment. The definitions given to participatory management appeared not to have changed fundamentally in its process of development.

The discussion of the values and normative grounds on which participation is practiced in supervision focussed on those that emanated from social work supervision and management. The composite of these sources therefore assumed a distinctive character consistent with the participatory management philosophy and the requirements of the supervisory setting.

The methods of applying participatory management was discussed in full recognition of, and as having been firmly bedded in, the principles of participation as defined by the literature. The contributions of supervisors and supervisees who were involved in practice at the time of writing were also included to support the discussions and the conclusions drawn.

CHAPTER 6

THE PRIMARY COMPONENTS OF PARTICIPATORY MANAGEMENT IN SUPERVISION

6.1 Introduction

Like knowledge of the utilisation of work groups, collective bargaining, and brainstorming, participatory management has already made its mark on supervision. However, the evaluative study is intended to highlight the development of it and examine ways whereby it is being further improved through the consolidation of its associated processes and procedures. In particular, the many components of participatory management will be evaluated as far as they remain consistent with the values, ethics, and philosophy of social work, the latter continuing to be a value-based profession (Ashford and Timms 1990 : 1-20; Drower 1991 : 275; Kadushin 1992 : 27).

Three theoretical perspectives commonly associated with general management and by which the components of participatory management in supervision can be best measured are ecclectically used in the evaluative study. They encapsulate operating requirements and features that are considered comprehensively suited for this purpose : Scientific Management [for Frederick Taylor's (1911) emphasis on how best to complete work tasks], Human Relations or Behavioral Science [for Mary Parker Follet's (1924) discources on the importance of the motivation, satisfaction, and democratic leadership of workers], and

Management science [for its use of specific aids for the maintenance of systems of control and communication]. These particular characteristics of each theoretical approach form the basis of the assumptions, concepts, and propositions that would be included in this section of the evaluative study. In their combined form, and with the added facilitation achieved through management science techniques, the scientific and human relations approach is viewed as one way whereby participatory management by supervisors and supervisees create an environment of 'total quality management', that is, the engagement of all effective means to extract the best possible results from the use of resources in the effort to achieve set goals (Berman 1995 : 55-72; Griffin 1993 : 503-504; Martin 1993 : 1-16; Taylor and Vigars 1993 : 74-75).

6.2 The scientific management approach

First introduced in 1903 by Frederick Winslow Taylor, scientific management has been given much currency in a vast literature on management theory that has developed since then. It has particular significance as an approach that Taylor considered as an effective means whereby productivity can be doubled through scientific analysis of work elements, the selection of one best way of doing work tasks, selection and training of workers to perform the resultant standardised tasks, the distinction between the planning and the completion of work, and the encouragement of cooperation between workers and management (Weiner 1990 : 83). It also allowed managements to retain the responsibility of planning, organising, and controlling the work, while workers

were simply required to do the work. It has nonetheless contributed greatly to the growth of industry and non-industrial organisations like human services agencies, through the introduction of efficient productive processes and the achievements of results quantified in terms of set goals.

The principles inherent in Taylor's thinking seem to point at uniformity in the work-place, economy in the use of resources and training, a division of labour between workers and management on the basis of superior and subordinate positions, a reliance on management for the thinking about the work, and the doing of the work by workers. The process of applying these seem geared only to the facilitation of the development of workers into efficient, productive units.

As held by the literature (Herman 1991 : 26; Hurlbert 1992 : 67), participatory management in supervision subscribes fully to the notion that finding the best possible way to completing work tasks through the harnessing of the human value of workers, and standardising it within the limits of the team situation, would lead to efficiency and results. However, given the role distinction between supervisors and supervisees, the following should be seen as an appropriate adaptation of some of the elements of the Scientific Management approach as it is currently applied in supervision:

(a) The coordination of the roles of supervisors (seniors) and supervisees (subordinates). This coordination would be consistent with the ethos of participation, which requires that an

egalitarian rather than a separatist dispensation of roles be applied.

(b) The role of supervisors and supervisees as change agents rather than merely as production units. This view of supervisors and supervisees stresses the human element of supervisors and supervisees.

(d) The sharing of responsibility between supervisors and supervisees consistent with their role distinctions and different levels of knowledge, expertise, and status. This would, however not obviate the professional equity that each would enjoy within their own rights.

6.2.1 Supervisory role functioning in a participatory management environment

Supervisory role functioning described below highlights its characteristic of evoking positive changes in supervisees so that they might develop the capacity to take increasing responsibility for their work and thus gaining more awareness, satisfaction, and fulfilment in their own role performance as managers. This trend is closely akin to that claimed by Barretta-Herman (1993 : 60-61) in her proposed individual responsibility model and the ealier model proposed by Durst (1988 : 2) and described as a Management By Responsibility model for general managerial practice. The latter model lays much stress on attitudinal aspects of responsible behavior by the manager, his commitment, motivation, specific relational skills, and a sound philosophy in the good that could be achieved through responsible behavior. Durst (1988 : 2) fails, however, to identify the many different situations in which managers find themselves in an infinite range

of work settings, and how those situations might impinge on the manager's sense of responsibility. The evaluative study nonetheless draws freely on Durst's (1988) model in evaluative managerial practice in supervision, acknowledging the 'responsibility' model as one that, whenever used, provides much in injecting effective and improved ways in the management styles of supervisors and supervisees.

Elaborating on his own theory, Durst (1988 : 22-75) maintains that responsibility implies power sharing and commitment; it expresses the ability to act with competence and care; it is exercised without coersion and force; it does not operate on the belief that workers need protection, or that seniors should lay undue stress on their positions of authority; and, it avoids the pitfall of the manipulation of workers in pursuit of organisational ideals. When applied in supervisory practice, Durst's approach serves as an effective recipe for increasing the sense of responsibility in supervisees. In the later discussion of the development of participatory management in supervision, it may be seen how increased sense of responsibility could be achieved through the operationalisation of the various practical actions associated with participatory management.

6.2.2 Supervisor and supervisee characteristics for acceptable participatory management performance

Given the nature of the participatory management approach, supervisors and supervisees are required to have basic professional characteristics in order to perform acceptably in using participatory approaches in their relationship. Those

characteristics would combine to form a dynamic social system which, corresponding with Ables and Murphy's (1981 : 22 and 48) interpretation of human service organisations as dynamic social systems, would entail the constant interplay of the supervisors' and supervisees' knowledge, skills, and attributes.

This interplay of knowledge, skills, and attributes is present in their role as change agents despite their pursuit towards different goals. Supervisors respond to the needs of their supervisees whereas supervisees respond to the needs of their clients. The actions of both in their distinctive ways would be equally consistent with Johnson's (1989 : 3-17 and 47-67) generalist views that social work's priority role is one of responding to the concerns and needs of the community, since, in the process of working together, they would creatively blend knowledge, values, and skills.

(1) Supervisor and supervisee knowledge, skills, and attributes

The success of collaborative supervisor and supervisee working relationships would be largely dependent on whether they possess, apply, and blend their basic knowledge, skills, and attributes while each fulfil their particular obligations. Firstly, knowledge of the practice of social work, supervision, relevant aspects of management, and how professional colleagues behave in the work setting, is included in the ensuing discussion. This too, would highlight the importance of knowledge of the interplay between their actions and the social structure, rules, and

history of the organisation in which they would be operating (Blackler 1993 : 882).

Secondly, the discussion focusses on the essential skills used in the application of the knowledge discussed. Of these, the most appropriate forms are the use of management skills, authority, and individual and group approaches in task achievement, all of which are subject to the particular capacity of supervisors and supervisees in bringing about imaginative and developmental changes to their usage. Finally, therefore, the supervisors' and supervisees' attributes of creativity and innovative behavior are discussed as having the potential to influence the way supervisors and supervisees use their knowledge and skills.

(a) Supervisee knowledge of client behavior and related knowledge

Falck (1988 : 108) claims that, like many other professions, social work would be reliant on the knowledge of biological, psychological, and social features of those whom it serves, as a first priority. Supervisors have the task of helping supervisees retain their awareness of the importance of this comprehensive knowledge, as well as helping them use their conceptual skills in the process of understanding client behaviour (Rothmund and Botha 1991 ii : 39). The latter would help supervisees to understand what ought to be done under the further guidance of supervisors. Knowledge is thus used, and understood, in the light of the 'constant connectedness' that exists between the many factors in the life situation of clients, and the professional approach to be adopted in approaching those

situations (Falck 1988 : 110-111; Johnson 1989 : 3-17; Pettes 1979 : 36).

These knowledge areas also denote a strong value base. That is, they provide the supervisees with the opportunity to develop awareness of options about the various lines of approach that could be adopted in the light of the knowledge that they have of the client and his life situation. The supervisors' guiding, and the supervisees' problem-solving, roles, as well as the effects the supervisees' work will have on the community as a whole, is thus dependent on, and influenced by, the attainment of comprehensive knowledge (Munson 1983 : 31).

(b) Knowledge of collegial behavior

The close, collaborative, cooperative, and egalitarian system of professional operation and communication associated with participatory management is influenced by the supervisor's and supervisees' knowledge of how they would use their respective influence in the working relationship. According to Johnson's (1989 : 10) conceptualisation of systems theory, this knowledge comprises structural, functional, and developmental features that denote a network of relationships between supervisors and supervisees. These relationships, referred to by Munson (1983 : 88-96) as 'interactional reactions' in respect of supervisees, would involve reactions or behaviors which supervisees might display either separately or in combination during supervision, and which might tend to either thwart or advance smooth supervisory processes.

In a participatory management setting, it is anticipated that supervisors ought to have reasonable knowledge of supervisees' preferences in the use of these reactions or behaviours. Supervisors should be able to guage how their supervisees master and use social work practice skills, what their personalities are like, their communicative preferences, and how they are able to develop through the influence of each other. Supervisees, on the other hand are able to gauge how their supervisors use their authority over them, what their personalities are like, and their communicative preferences. From the position of their different vantage points in the participatory management relationship, both supervisors and supervisees would use their knowledge in any of the following ways, based on the formulations of Munson (1983 : 88-96):

(i) Reasoned neutrality - the expression of impartiality on specific work issues either as a patterned behavior or portion of interaction. Knowledge of this distinction is needed to make interactions realistic.

(ii) Perceived organisational constraints - In order to understand the supervisees' reluctance to use organisational resources, knowledge by supervisors of both this reluctance and the constraints on resourcing is needed to either accept or challenge them.

(iii) Overwhelmimg clinical or other evidence - supervisees exaggerate the magnitude of problems presented by clients in order to stifle the supervisory role. In participatory management settings, however, supervisors endeavour to be aware of this, on

which basis the errant supervisees are aided in partialising problems presented.

(iv) Persistent assessment and evaluation - In an effort to delay treatment due to poor self-concept or perceived incompetence, supervisees continue information gathering without relevant action. Supervisors take heed of this behavior and rectify it to prevent it from reaching the proportion of overwhelming clinical evidence that has no treatment value.

(v) Oversimplication response - Supervisees present and discuss complex cases or projects without due reference to the dynamics involved. When supervisors discover that this deficiency is the result of the supervisees' lack of insight or experience, they facilitate the development of the defaulting supervisees by filling in the theoretical gaps.

(vi) Pseudo criticism desire - As a camouflage for their need for simple confirmation of their work, supervisees develop the patterned response of evoking the criticism of their supervisors. Knowledge of this behavior, and ways to respond appropriately, is obtained by supervisors in order to retain acceptable interrelations between the offending supervisees and other supervisees who resort under the guidance of the same supervisor.

(vii) Theoretical speculation - Opposite to the response of oversimplification, and similar to that of presenting overwhelming clinical or other evidence, supervisors support and guide their supervisees in maximising most of their time and energies to the exploration of the theoretical dimensions of cases or projects placed under their attention. This guidance and support encourage supervisees to inadvertently override the

necessity for treatment or action. Other supervisees are made aware of this risk and call for a limited discussion of the theoretical bases of cases or projects so that treatment and action can take their due course in problem-solving processes.

(viii) Self-awareness - Supervisors and supervisees are suitably aware of their own strengths and weaknesses, inclinations, styles of operation, and own knowledge base. Knowledge and awareness of these character traits and behavioral preferences are shared among them so that their interrelations are consistent with that shared knowledge.

(c) Managerial skills

The supervisory skills discussed in sub-section 3.5 (p 67) has a distinctly managerial character when compared with the management activities enumerated by Patti (1977 : 7). He categorises them as planning, information processing, controlling, coordinating, evaluating, negotiating, representing, staffing, supervising, direct service, budgeting, and extra-curricula in nature (for example, public relations and advocacy). These denote an underlying role performance of managing information, taking decisions, communicating, and managing the consequences of action taken, consistent with Ables and Murphy's (1981 : 17) theory of 'management for just consequences' and Mintzberg's (1973, cited by Griffin 1993 : 4-5, and Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 5-6) manager roles. In a participatory management setting supervisors and supervisees use their skills in each of these underlying actions so that the completion of the management activities enumerated above may be achieved.

The **management of information** is the first and perhaps most all-pervading skill - also termed by Falck (1988 : 94) as the broadest skill. It has the function of facilitating the general work tasks of both supervisors and supervisees, the guiding tasks of supervisors, as well as allowing both supervisors and supervisees to differentiate between relevant and irrelevant information in either the therapeutic situation or in the guiding relationship between them. Only information that can be put to good use is included in the exercise of this skill. Supervisors and supervisees unable to sift through information in a process of selecting the most relevant type of information would lapse into ever-increasing states of overloading. The latter states would represent, in Ross and Fridjhon's (1995 : 265) words, '...a smouldering problem' of burnout as it might generally affect social workers.

The supervisors'and supervisees' task of managing information on the basis of their respective roles and functions is for the purposes of having adequate control over, and evaluative material for, the internal monitoring of their own work processes. It is also needed for the control of the procedures involved in the conduiting of information to the external environment.

Crow and Odewahn (1981 : 100-103) encourage the use of technologically assisted Management Information Systems (MIS) to help them manage this information. Supervisees who use the MIS aid are assisted in linking different strands of information, or

separating them, for the purposes of problem analyses and other managerial tasks. Similarly, supervisors find their use particularly effective in evaluative exercises or other supervisory functions (Bowers 1988 : 59; De Voney 1991 : 171; Easterby-Smith et al 1993 : 114).

When serving as spokespersons or public relations persons, supervisors are fully informed about issues to be discussed especially in situations where they might serve as links between the special interests of their agencies and special sources of information like the media. Having full access to an MIS well managed by themselves facilitates their disseminator and spokesmen roles, and refines the social process of sending messages (Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 40-41; Mintzberg 1973, cited by Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 5; Wood 1984 : 18).

The second skill is **participative decision-making.** This type of decision-making is appropriately one of quality on the basis of Vroom and Jago's (1983, as cited by Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 78) theory that the situation determines the degree of participative decision-making. When a participatory mode of management is used, the level of participation between supervisors and supervisees, according to Vroom and Jago's (1973, cited by Weiner 1990 : 78) postulations, participatory decision-making would feature prominently, whereby supervisors and supervisees would be involved without the influence or the final vetoing authority of supervisors as leaders but rather involve the taking of decisions for which all share responsibility. This style would

therefore entail more than Holloway and Brager's (1989:136-140) collective decision-making type, one in which they describe it in terms of group decision through voting, minority veto, and consensus without reference to a participative element as in Vroom and Jago's (1973) model.

Decisions are made in planning processes, in the organisation of structures needed for the implementation of plans agreed upon by supervisors and supervisees, how supervisors use their leadership positions in propelling the endeavour to implement plans, and how they conduct evaluation of the outcomes of that implementation. Decisions are therefore meant to help them make sense of their will to inject order into their endeavours, in interlocking ways, and as a means of punctuating the flow of their interactions (Chia 1994 : 803).

Consistent with Crow and Odewahn's (1987 : 13 and 89) theory, the process of implementing participative decision-making by supervisors and supervisees would be subject to the employ of further skills:

* Assessing their situation and finding the elements that need action. This action demands a collection of information about the causes of unsatisfactory performance and what outcome may be regarded as a satisfactory solution.
* Formulating alternative solutions that will ensure the desired outcome. This involves decisions about how participation among supervisors and supervisees will be put into practice.
* Analysing the advantages and disadvantages of alternative

lines of action. For example, analysing the benefits of full participation in the settling of relationship difficulties, and the alternative of calling on outside help for this purpose.

* Choosing and implementing of solutions based on participative decisions taken. This would be the crucial stage of the decision-making process, one which Vroom and Jago (1973, cited by Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 78) prefers to call 'decision acceptance'. When reaching this stage in their decision-making with supervisees, supervisors take the lead in assessing whether all are agreed on decisions based on participative deliberations. The more supervisors and supervisees feel that they had participated in a final decision taken, the more the effective implementation of it is advanced.

The third managerial skill is that of **communicating**, one that is effectively used by the supervisory structure. It involves the favorable transmission of information between supervisors and supervisees. However, when communication also takes place outside the parameters of the supervisory structure within the context of the organisational setting, the transmission of information is particularly advanced by it. Both these platforms of communication are not used merely for the mechanical transmission of information but also for the transmission of understanding and thus the sharing of meaning (Cronje 1986 : 126 and 181; Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 112-113; Kadushin 1985 : 68, and 1992 i : 337; Stoner and Freeman 1989 : 523).

According to Kadushin (1985 : 73) effective communication between supervisors and supervisees is the bedrock of successful human relations between them. On this basis supervisors and supervisees operating in a participatory management setting build up among themselves credibility that has its source in the attitude of confidence and trust in each other's motives and sincerity so that communication can be advantaged. On the other hand, communicating is also used when both have to act in negotiating capacities, and wherein the exchange of ideas would be required. Corresponding with Crow and Odewahn's (1987 : 168) suggestion, supervisors and supervisees resort to interpersonal communication especially in situations where recognition of and response to their respective needs is called for.

Specht's (1985 : 225-230) theoretical framework of interpersonal interactions for professionals contains the collegial type of communication in which he describes the degree of power and autonomy as being on equal terms. Supervisors and supervisees use this type of communication as a natural part of their communication patterns in participatory management. Whereas supervisors have more power and authority than their supervisees, the collegial type of communication between them is used as a way of allowing them to use their power and authority without undermining the appropriate power and autonomy that supervisees have in the participatory relationship. Supervisees also possess power derived from their own knowledge base and in relation to their clients. This power is not relinquished in their interpersonal relationships with their supervisors.

Apart from the outcomes or consequences of their direct managerial performance or the supervisees' social work practice, the outcome of supervisors' and supervisees' skill in communicative actions permit the consequences of more effective coordination of their work and cooperative behavior. These positive consequences are especially achieved through the linkage provided by the flow of information and feedback between them (Kadushin 1985 : 67; Van Niekerk 1988 : 201).

The **management of consequences** is thus the fourth skill which supervisors and supervisees use in a participative manner. On the one hand, outcomes or consequences might be of a positive nature leaving supervisors and supervisees gratified and motivated. On the other hand, as Ables and Murphy (1981 : 17) propose, goals might result in poor consequences. In those cases, efforts to modify them are made so that motivation and gratification might be achieved in the pursuit of goals more suited to their situation. Supervisors or supervisees unable to adapt to changed goals might put the participatory relationship in jeopardy by reinforcing their lack of morale and motivation.

Whatever the nature of the consequences of supervisors' and supervisees' actions, they emanate from the interrelationships and the direct performance of supervisors and supervisees. Consistent with Falck's (1988 : 99) contention, interrelationships are a social act involving the effect of the behavior of one on the other. Supervisors and supervisees therefore endeavour to adopt a responsible managerial attitude

and accept the consequences of their interactions (Durst 1988 : 84). In accordance with Ables and Murphy's (1981 : 17) observation, supervisors are thus prepared to accept that their actions impact on each other and others with whom they are in contact. Working in a participative mode of management whereby their roles differentiation is nonetheless maintained, there is a consequential reduction of supervisor-supervisee alienation. This synergistic setup may be regarded as a just consequence for supervisors and supervisees, and one which would ensure that the assumed authority of supervisors and supervisees' accountability to them is retained. Supervisors' authority is treated hereunder as a primary managerial skill that influences their other skills, and is thus given special emphasis in discussion separate from those skills discussed under sub-section (c) (p 148).

(d) Skill in the use of authority

The authority of supervisors on the basis of their position, expert knowledge, personality, and functionality remains intact in the participatory context. However, supervisors' skill in understanding and using this authority is integral to their working relationship with supervisees (Abramezyk 1980 : 88; Kadushin 1985 : 93; Munson 1983 : 25).

Cronje (1986 : 292) holds that the social work manager (supervisee) should accept his right to exercise his professional authority. In practice, supervisors have authority over supervisees and the latter over their clients. They show similar acceptance of this right, with due recognition of their own

limits and the extent of that authority. Consistent with Cronje's (1986 : 296) further comments, they use appropriate ways in the functional exercise of their authority. This exercise of their authority would furthermore determine the degree of influence that supervisors and supervisees would have in their respective areas of work.

Acting as figureheads, supervisors exercise functional authority as well as have influence in a way that supervisees cannot expect. Supervisees can nevetheless exert influence on their colleagues and clients by using their authority through expert knowledge and personality in a well-rounded, impartial, and realistic manner. This is achieved by allowing more than Austin's (1981 : 44) 'free-rein' type of authority. The latter merely vests authority in the team and makes the supervisor 'first among equals' in the participatory working environment. Rather the well-rounded, impartial, and realistic manner of using authority is achieved by mutual respect of each other's relative authority; portraying the power associated with their professional training through the equitable exercise of their authority; and, regarding the authority held by them as specific enough to allow them to fulfil their roles without fear of exceeding it or having their actions challenged and reversed (unless they were guilty of clear misuse of judgement in decision-making to the detriment of the good nature of their work) (Drower 1991 : 141-147; Durst 1988 : 74-91; Morgan 1991 : 141-147).

(e) Attributes of creativity and entrepreneurship

Creativity is described as the ability to go beyond normal limits in introducing new, fresh ideas, new modes of thinking, and doing things through the exploration of all possible ways. It thus goes beyond what might be preset in the 'one best way' approach of scientific management. It is normally expressed through self-initiative or the stimulation of others, like supervisors who could support supervisees in creative decision-making (Amit 1993 : 817; Kanter 1983 : 20; Smith 1985 : 80-84; Weiner 1990 : 83).

To prevent stagnation and a static working environment, supervisors and supervisees apply their knowledge and skills creatively to bring about change in an entrepreneurial way by constantly questioning their performance as participatory managers, perceiving how they perform, and assessing their individual functioning. In that process, change might be needed in their practice performance or procedures, requiring a response. When situations like these are identified, they are exploited as an opportunity and not as a chore (Cronje 1986 : 294; Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 117; Drucker 1986 : 27-28).

Wilken (1979 : 60) says entrepreneurship has a discontinuous nature, appearing only when changes are needed. Still, the entrepreneurial approach, according to Tropman (1989 : 221-222), involves a change in the character of innovation from one of merely developing and implementing new ideas to one of intellectual and interpersonal risk. Supervisors and supervisees could nonetheless use the opportunity creatively.

According to Johnson (1989 : 47), social work can be perceived as the creative blending of knowledge, values, and skills. On this basis, supervisors and supervisees creatively translate and blend their accumulated knowledge and experience from their collective practice wisdom, the practice literature, and their belief in the need for change and innovation, and apply it in their working environment. This is done in the interests of continually shaping the way in which their situations are organised and managed by themselves within the broader context of the agency (Johnson 1989 : 60-61; Munson 1983 : 7; Weiner 1990 : 56).

Supervisees, constantly having their ideas under the intellectual scrutiny of supervisors, and the risk of having their self-esteem and sense of competence exposed during supervision or in their task performance in respect of their clients, could experience some measure of embarrasment, shame, or interpersonal difficulties caused by guilt. These are seen as part of the search for creative change and would be exploited whenever it is thought appropriate (Drucker 1986 : 74-75; Tropman 1989 : 221-222).

By implication it would be correct to assume, as Crow and Odewahn (1987 : 127) does, that the planning of change '...is a vital part of the entrepreneurial role'. Whereas for Amit (1993 : 817 and 824), the entrepreneurial endeavour (as in the field of marketing) would be characterised by a low level of uncertainty about outcomes and a conscious renovation in the combination of

available resources, planning in those endeavours should not be viewed as a waste of time, nor should it be viewed as an end product. The manager is constantly looking for ways to improve, to redesign, to reallocate, or to change, and planning must be an integral part of that activity. It follows, therefore, that many of the difficulties associated with change would be obviated through the planned approach.

(f) Delegation

As in the case of the supervisors' skill in the use of authority discussed in the above sub-section, delegation is treated here as a skill that deserves special attention. It has particular characteristics that are clearly participatory in nature. For example, Holloway and Brager (1989 : 140) contend, as also observed by Hurlbert (1992 : 65-66), that the delegation of authority and responsibility is to be found at the most participative end of the decision-making continuum. Taken in conjunction with Ables and Murphy's (1981 : 12-13) propagation of professional autonomy, supervisors and supervisees working in a participatory fashion use this form of delegation. Hurlbert (1992 : 66) points out, however, that studies by Leana (1987) have shown that delegation is often used more discriminately and leads to higher subordinate performance than participation. It can nonetheless be used to good effect within participatory working relationships, whereby supervisees would be assigned tasks as well as the authority to do them, and for which they would be held accountable (Griffin 1993 : 272).

The form of collective participation in decision-making also implies that supervisees operating in a participatory context are trusted and regarded as able to undertake delegated positionary authority. In terms of Crow and Odewahn's (1987 : 143, 216) description, it is assumed that supervisees in particular would effectively use the opportunity to accept the delegated role of authority, using decision-making powers, and completing the other activities normally associated with the managerial role.

Participatory management in supervision is seen as a vehicle of delegated authority for supervisees, given the many activities that supervisors would allocate to them. These could include any number or all of Patti's (1977 : 7) activities, that is, those that relate directly to their own role functioning: planning, information processing, controlling, coordinating, negotiating, presenting, supplying, direct practice, budgeting, and evaluating. The delegation of these activities would also be subject to previously specified goals, issues, and tasks that supervisors and supervisees would jointly decide upon (Holloway and Brager 1989 : 140-141; Stoner and Freeman 1989 : 140).

Kadushin (1985 : 60) observes that in the supervisory setting, some supervisees might be in discomfort about their preparation for delegated activity, or reluctant to accept delegated tasks due to uncertainty about their capability. This situation requires a more precise delegation of tasks, and a more intensive preparation of the faulting supervisees, a process which might

have to include a recapitulation of the principles of delegation to which they will be subject. Koontz and O'Donnell (1976 cited by Crow and Odewahn 1981 : 142-143) suggest principles of delegation that serve well in this respect:

(1) Delegation by results expected - authority is delegated to supervisees on the basic premise that the delegated task or tasks are sufficient to assure expected results;

(2) Functional definition - Supervisees are availed of enough clarity on results expected and activities to be undertaken to boost their commitment to contribute to the achievement of organisational goals;

(3) Authority-level - authority for tasks or decisions delegated to individual supervisees remain their delegated right and are not referred to others;

(4) Absoluteness of responsibility - The responsibility of supervisees to their supervisors for performance is absolute once they have accepted an assignement and the delegated right to carry it out, whereas supervisors cannot escape responsibility for the organisational activities of their supervisees;

(5) Parity of authority and responsibility - The responsibility for the actions of supervisees are not greater than that implied by authority delegated for tasks.

The overal success of the participatory management approach of supervisors and supervisors are as much governed by their personal and relational dispositions as it would be by the components of the 'one best way' that they employ to reach organisational goals. The ensuing evaluation thus lays particular

stress on the behavioral aspects of their participatory management performance in supervision.

6.3 The behavioral science approach

Compared to the mechanistic approach associated with the classical scientific management school of thought, the equally classical behavioral science thinking arising from the human relations approach lays more emphasis on the needs of workers as persons rather than as production units. First introduced by Mary Parker Follett, this approach calls for recognition of the motivation of workers, as well as their informal patterns of behavior caused by the physical and social conditions surrounding them in the work situation (Andrews 1985 : 257-275; Weiner 1982 : 52-53).

Research conducted over the past 50 years has been claimed by Parker (1984 : 740) to have shown that this recognition of the human aspects of workers in the workplace was indeed illustrative of a recognition of the impact that the worker's level of motivation and interrelations would have on productivity. Indeed, Parker's (1984) research has also shown that this recognition has contributed to an improved application of the scientific management technique, and a resultant increase in productivity.

The discussion of the behavioral science approach in relation to the extent to which it impinges on the participatory management of supervisors and supervisees in supervision therefore attempts to evaluate its effect on the productivity, efficiency, as well

as the morale of supervisors and supervisees. The discussion includes a focus on the levels of motivation of supervisors and supervisees, how behavioral decision-making imposes limitations on the resolution of ambiguous problems, and the leadership roles of both supervisors and supervisees as a demonstration of behavioral action (Schermerhorn 1984 : 87).

6.3.1 Motivation theories

A study of a vast literature on motivation theory enunciates several generally applicable aspects of motivation in management and its relevance as a contributory factor in the performance of managers. The literature clarify its nature, its interlinking and interdependent processes, and its effects on those subjected to it. It is clear, however, that motivation is unlike the Taylorist (Griffin 1993 : 367) notion that remuneration alone is the motivation for all human action in the workplace. The relevant literature is drawn upon in the discussion that follows.

(1) Content

In terms of the **content** perspective, the literature's repeated identification of the nature of motivation is regarded as wholly applicable to the professional and personal needs of supervisors and supervisees working in a participatory management context in supervision. Writers like Baird, Post, and Mahon (1990 : 402), Hellriegel and Slocum (1986 : 407-408), and Van Niekerk (1988 : 133-135) show consistently that motivation has certain characteristics. Most fundamental of these is what Mcloud (1989 : 48-57) describes with emphasis, that is, that supervisors can only **activate** supervisees whereas the latter are expected to

motivate themselves. This **activation** is intergral to the supervisory role.

However, the motivation of either supervisors or supervisees is characterised in different ways:

(1) Supervisees are actively and intentionally motivated as a result of supervisors' delegation of tasks to them;

(2) Supervisors recognise and accomodate supervisees' different motives and abilities without departing from preset goals.

(3) Supervisees would have a clear understanding of what is expected of them in their respective positions, and endeavour to show their motivation in that context;

(4) Supervisors and supervisees allow their motivation to facilitate their interrelations by closely working with each other and help solve problems as they arise;

(5) They are aware of each other's individual strengths and limitations and try to interpret the differences in motivation accordingly;

(6) They would routinely and mutually seek active cooperation in improving service delivery and in that process maintain high levels of motivation;

(7) The fostering of an organisational sub-culture comprising their professional values takes place, which is oriented to performance on the basis of equity and shared responsibility;

(8) The award of rewards is for meritorious performance only as a form of work-focussed motivation.

The perception of supervisors and supervisees engaged in practice at the time of writing permits a reasonable estimate of the

extent to which supervisors were said to have motivated their supervisees. In answer to the question whether supervisors engage in the leadership role of motivating or activating supervisees, some favorable responses by supervisors were received, whereas those for supervisees were less favorable. These are recorded in Table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1 Supervisors' and supervisees' view of the motivational action of supervisors

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times	
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	29% (6)	71% (15)	N=21
Supervisees	0% (0)	2% (2)	55% (46)	43% (36)	N=84

Whereas the self-perception of supervisors and the perception of supervisees of their own supervisors differed, the data in Table 6.1 is strong evidence that supervisors saw themselves as routinely acting in a motivating capacity. Clearly, this action by supervisors would be to the benefit of supervisees who, in the process of motivation, receive more than mere administrative or educative input. Although less than half of the supervisees saw their own supervisors in the same way, those who did so had apparently experienced the motivation of their supervisors in a positive way.

In a particpatory environment, supervisors activate supervisees with the intention of encouraging more cooperation and collaboration in pursuit of set goals. This leads to motivation, applied on the basis of the notion that supervisees would be motivated by more than economic incentives which might have been

derived from their remuneration. Their motivation is derived from both the basis of hope for successful performance and the desire to remove discomfiture in the work situation. Consequently, in accordance with Follet's postulations, they are thus motivated by the opportunity of having their psychosocial needs for cooperation, encouragement, and interrelationships fulfilled (Weiner 1990 : 90).

(2) Process

Dyer et al (1990 : 445-446) write that in the **process** view, the nature of needs is not the only element that influences the behavior of individuals. Expected outcomes or rewards, first proposed by Vroom in his 'Expectancy Theory ' (or 'valence), can also have a bearing on workers' decisions on what they regard as the most appropriate **strategies** that will produce the most favorable results. This explanation of the process of motivation supports Imundo's (1980 : 18-19) earlier contention that the motivation process is the action part of a need-satisfaction cycle demonstrated in observed behavior.

Supervisees start this process in their situations by way of a show of strength in preference for a particular outcome or 'valence'. For example, if they anticipate that exceeding their involvement in community projects will help to facilitate greater community participation (outcome), and strongly desire such participation, then they would be well motivated to work longer hours, change the nature of their active participation, and alter the scope of their involvement in order to achieve that goal.

This illustration could be one way of exercising the priority objective of supervision, that is, that of ensuring that clients get full entitlement to service as a direct result of the committment of supervisees (Stoner and Freeman 1989 : 430).

However, motivation is also subjective, and in the context of the participatory context in which they work with supervisors, the motivation of supervisees is governed by different psychosocial influences. Since supervisors also activate supervisees in their relationship with them, the latters' motivated behavior and the result of the social process of interaction would include their own subjective responses as well as the subjective influences of supervisors. Supervisees' ultimate state of motivation would thus involve their individual feelings, perceptions, attitudes, and aspirations all of which would impinge on the process of interaction with their clients and communities receiving their service. For these reasons, the motivation process might assume unique features own to the particular nature of supervisor-supervisee relationships and the content of their motivation that is largely formed by these feelings, perceptions, and attitudes (Imundo 1980 : 18-19).

(3) Reinforcement

The motivated behavior of supervisees, as well as the social process of interaction between them and their supervisors, are further influenced by a system of operant conditioning. On the one hand, this takes the form of positive reinforcement or sanctioning by supervisors whereby they recognise desired

performance of supervisees by means of a reward; on the other hand, it takes the form of negative reinforcement and sanctioning by means of penalties in the case of undesireable action (Dyer et al 1990 : 448).

However, rather than use rewards, and in their enactment of the concepts of Kadushin (1985 : 89), supervisors use positive reinforcement by praising and recognising achievement and thereby provide feelings of satisfaction in work done rather than recommending that good performance be rewarded by way of increased remuneration. According to Kadushin (1985 : 89) this form of reinforcement '... can be freely given to one without denying them to others'.

Before resorting to punitive measures, such as disciplinary action, dismissals or demotions, supervisors use negative reinforcement towards supervisees in the form of criticism, avoidance, or less satisfying work assignments. These are reinforcers that allow erring supervisees the opportunity to correct their faults.

Reinforcement is used periodically since it is generally regarded as an effective method of ingraining a pattern of behavior that would endure even after the practice of praise or penalty has expired. It is nevertheless used judiciously and with moderation since, as Caplow (1979 : 92) cautions, rewards might be experienced as penalties by those do not get them, or generate ill-feelings; on the other hand, according to Dowling and Sayles

(1978 : 194-195), negative reinforcers might strain relations, cause distrust, and even adversely affect the performance standards of those who are affected.

In answer to the question whether they perceived supervisors as exercising their authority in the form of reinforcement, it was found that in the practice setting, few supervisors and supervisees responded to the extreme forms of positive and negative reinforcement put to them. Those who responded nonetheless gave the clear perception that supervisors were more engaged in the example given of positive reinforcement than in the negative one. The percentages reflecting this perception in relation to these examples are given in Table 6.2 below.

Table 6.2 Supervisors' and supervisees' perception of the reinforcing action of supervisors

	N=21 Supervisors	N=84 Supervisees
Recommending disciplinary action	14% (3)	7% (6)
Recommending promotion	29% (6)	41% (34)

On the basis of the scores in Table 6.2 above, it is concluded that supervisors were perceived to be more inclined to the positive than the negative forms of reinforcement. The lack of response to the extreme forms of reinforcement put to the respondents validates to some extent the perceptions of the above literature that reinforcement of any type should not be used in its extreme forms, like the examples put to them. This approach

to reinforcement is particularly applicable in the participatory management setting whereby supervisors, given their seniority and authority, exercise their authority in considerate, capacity building ways. Supervisors use a balanced form of supervision within the participatory management setting, and would only use extreme reinforcement measures like recommending promotions or disciplinary action as a last resort.

6.3.2 Leadership

Starling (1982 : 430) defines managerial leadership as '...the process of influencing the activities of a group in efforts toward goal attainment in a given situation'. This definition clearly highlights the key elements of leader, followers, and the situation in which they would find themselves. These elements allude to a situational form of leadership, and are also the variables that would combine to influence the behaviour and style of the leader.

Contemporary literature shows clear leanings toward the situational leadership type developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard (1982) as a refinement of the original 1920 contingency theory of Follet. In both instances, emphasis is placed on environmental factors as they affect managerial as well as organisational performance. However, the situational school maintain that there is also no one best way or style to influence people since their readiness to be led would determine the leader's behavior and style (Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 123; Handy 1987 : 96-97; Weiner 1990 : 98).

Within the participatory management environment of supervision, the position of supervisors as leaders, and the position of supervisees as managers, are subject to the operating conditions that participation creates. Supervisors have a moderating influence in the implementation and performance linkage in respect of supervisees. Their character is thus unlike the 'independent variable' character of leaders in the upper echelons of the organisations in which they operate (Nahavandi and Malekzadeh 1993 : 419).

Supervisors exert influence associated with their role as leaders in the context of supervision. This usage is not consistent with Crow and Odewahn's (1987 : 46) interpretation of leadership, in which managers or leaders are seen to have less influence than others who do not have the title of leader. Traits and characteristics such as the force of their personalities, knowledge, attitudes, and the environment are at play in the supervisors' fulfilment of their role as leaders. However, they adopt leadership styles commensurate with these qualities and attitudes.

Given the participative, people-oriented nature of contemporary supervision, it would follow that a fluid style of leadership should be adopted, one emanating from the premise that knowledge of each supervisee and the situation is vital. In this respect, Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1973, as cited by Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 11) theory of democratic, people-oriented leadership, and Hersey and Blanchard's (Weiner 1990 : 124) leadership style of

participating, encouraging, collaborating, and committing, are most appropriate. The adoption of these styles are dependent on the high level of readiness of supervisors and supervisees to use their ability and confidence to do their respective tasks, and a voluntary willingness by supervisees to follow the directives of supervisors (Kadushin 1985 : 116).

In the exercise of their leadership roles, supervisors are guided by many principles identified by a large literature in which there is consistent overlapping. In the supervisory setting those principles are applied as follows (Austin 1981 : 44; Bargal and Schmid 1989 : 46-47; Bevilacqua 1988 : 283-289; Hersey and Blanchard 1982 : 471; Manz and Sims 1987 : 120; Pettes 1979 : 74; Tannenbaum and Smhmidt 1973 : 163; Vroom 1973 : 67):

(a) Supervisors act as co-creators of vision and mission, rather than as the primary ones, since their supervisees expect to have some control over their methods of leading;

(b) In order to succeed in making their supervisees understand the effect that their skill, knowledge, and the environment might have on their performance, supervisors accept that such factors cannot be precise and altogether clear, that their supervisors ought to be aware of the broader societal context within which their agency of employ operates, and that some allowance for ambiguity must be made;

(c) As their supervisees mature in their professional roles, supervisor functions of establishing intra-team relations as well as ensuring the completion of tasks, will become less incumbent on supervisors;

(d) Supervisors require a clear understanding of their own role in relation to that of their supervisees. Within the democratic environment created by the participatory management approach in supervision, supervisors and their supervisees jointly agree on their separate roles, whereas supervisors conduct their own considerable judgement in assessing the capacity of their supervisees before they can fully accept their roles;

(e) Supervisors activate their supervisees through reinforcement processes in which the encouragement of celebrations of success or the attainment of milestones feature prominently;

(f) Supervisors and their supervisees equalise their power, influence, and freedom by participating in decision-making on problems within constraints which the agency of employ imposes;

(g) Self-leadership might be an outcome of the process of problem analysis and decision-making especially when supervisees share levels of maturity, expertise, and experience with supervisors. In those cases, they would have their own system of values and attitudes, professional approaches, and perceptions. Although self-leaders would therefore engage in self-directing, self-motivation, self-criticism, and self-evaluation, they will nevertheless be required by supervisors to move at the pace of other supervisees so that the combined effort demanded by participation in the attainment of organisational goals remain a collective responsibility.

6.4 The management science approach

Since the early 1970's, an emergent Management Science school of thought have produced theories on the processes of, inter alia,

cybernetics (or communication/information theories) and quantitative sciences. The application of these theories have made substantial inroads in the theory and practice of contemporary supervision in so far as they cater for the needs of supervisors and supervisees on the basis of their particular capabilities.

Cybernetics aid the control process of the self-regulating system in which supervisors and supervisees work, as well as help improve the communication between them, by mathematically analysing the flow of information within their working environment; and, quantitative sciences assist the modelling and simulation procedures which lead to managerial decisions, including the scheduling of time frames within which supervisors and supervisees operate. Clearly, the importance of the handling of information is vital, and the capability to handle the various processes the information would undergo in pursuit of managerial goals is resident in the cybernetic and quantitative approaches (Readers Digest Universal Dictionary 1991 : 388; Weiner 1990 : 205).

In applying these approaches to good effect and within the ambit of their different roles, supervisors and supervisees use appropriate techniques of modelling, projecting, and scheduling, in computerised forms involving the acquisition, processing, analysis, and dissemination of information aided by technologically advanced management information systems (MIS's) that are more efficient than was previously the case. MIS's are

able to accommodate the mathematical techniques found in the management science approach, and thereby ease the process of seeking solutions to problems faced by supervisors and supervisees (Barker 1987 : 93 ; Miller and Feldman 1983 : 56-60)

6.4.1 Selected techniques

(1) Programme designing and projecting

The Community Welfare Act No 104 of 1987 (The South African Government, House of Representatives, 1987) and Hasenfeld (1979 : 142-150) are two sources that contain useful guidelines for programming, including a very comprehensive range of aspects considered by them to be necessary for success in running projects over long periods of time. Aspects such as goals, objectives, financial aspects, and the context of programmes are broadly those that they consider integral in the process of programme designing and projecting. Their proposals seem equally adaptable to all primary methods of social work.

Supervisors and supervisees use similar techniques aided by the 'program technology' about which Hasenfeld (1979 : 148) writes broadly. Corresponding with Hasenfeld's (1979 : 148-149) concept of 'program technology', the technology of systems to streamline procedures, and administrative aids, like schedules and rosters, are used for the practical implementation of the participatory programme designing and projecting functions of supervisors and supervisees in supervision. This technology aids the process of control of their professional activity, assist their managerial decisions, serve as time schedules, and reflect

mathematical techniques that keep track of the generation of information and task completion.

The chart that is contained in Appendix C is an example designed by the researcher and which has been used by social workers employed by The Health nad Welfare Services Department of the House of Representatives (1989), SHAWCO of the University of Cape Town, The Child Welfare Society, The Community Services Section of the Cape Regional Services Council (1990), and final year Social Work students of the Universities of Cape Town and the Western Cape, for the purposes of achieving the above managerial advantages. It covers all aspects that Section 12 of the Community Welfare Act 104 of 1987 and Hasenfeld (1979 : 138-158) include in their postulations and which reflect cybernetic and quantitative motivations. Supervisees or students using it make entries on it in concise, brief terms that summarise activities and other detail for easy reference, record, and adjustment purposes. In line with the current trend towards technological means to speed up data collection, recording, and manipulation, this chart has been entered on a computerised database capable of accepting, ongoing, updated data and analising all data stored, as well as easing the task of supervisors in discussing project development with supervisees during supervisory sessions or during group meetings (Ackerman 1995 : 24-25).

(2) Time scheduling

The techniques of programme designing and projecting is further refined through the adoption of the technique of scheduling.

Meredith and Gibbs (1980 : 296) describe this technique as the estimation of the kinds of activities that need to be undertaken at specific times in order to achieve desired service output through the most efficient utilisation of resources.

Crow and Odewahn (1987 : 162) and Handy (1987 : 347), however, prefer to see scheduling as a form of planning whereby the sequencing of activities on the basis of set priorities is achieved, rather than merely deciding on activities to be completed at certain times. Supervisors and supervisees use this technique especially to control and coordinate their separate and joint activities, routinising them appropriately in the scheduling of regular meetings or prescribed data inputs. It also assists supervisees in feeding back information to their supervisors relevant to progress, difficulties, or achievements in their work activities (Handy 1987 : 347). Other practical situations illustrating this techniques are discussed in more detail in sub-section 8.2.2 below (p 215).

6.4.2 The computer as technological aid

There is sufficient evidence to suggest that computerisation has made substantial inroads into the way human activity is exercised in the general workplace and in social work practice. Consistent with Weiner's (1990 : 205) ideas on the versatility of computers, supervisors and supervisees use computers as administrative tools. They form an integral part of the information system, serving mainly as means for quantitative analysis and automation of the office procedures to which both

supervisors and supervisees must subscribe. Practical examples of these uses for supervisees are data-basing, graphic analysis of client development or project success, computer-aided therapy, and desktop publishing for the purposes of designing and printing notices of meetings, posters, or other aids for administrative use. Supervisors use them, for example, to schedule meetings, analise trends in caseload mixes, evaluation of supervisees developement, desk-top publishing, and internal and external electronic mailing (Schoech et al 1993 : 31-52 ; Valesquez 1992 : 41; Van der Watt and Cronje 1995 : 169-182).

In computer jargon, supervisors and supervisees would be regarded as 'end users' since they would not be experts in contemporary data processing. They would nevertheless be able to use it creatively in decision-making and operating a decision support system (DSS) geared for the manipulation of information for the latter purpose (Rockert and Flannery 1983 : 776-784; Wood 1984: 15). However, its has limits in not allowing supervisors and supervisees beyond their reductionist functions; they are, for example, not able to generate information based on rational decision-making or interpretation, nor for therapeutic discourse (Murphy and Pardeck 1992 : 67-69). These shortcomings do not detract from the overal usefulness of computers in supervision.

Direct access to a DSS would allow supervisees to perform their own data-management chores, and recent advances in computer capability might ease the challenges inherent in those chores, as well as remove some of its limitations. For example, new

expert systems (ES's), artificial intelligence (AI), or virtual reality (VR), could simulate the behavior and thought of supervisees by electronically diagnosing problems, and recommending alternative strategies and solutions. It is further proposed that much of the operationalisation of the various practical aspects of participatory management in supervision described and evaluated in the following sections are expedited by the appropriate use of the different capabilities of the computer (Liebowitz 1988 : 3-21).

6.5 Summary

This chapter had drawn together appropriate theory from the fields of social work supervision and management to describe and evaluate the many components of participatory management in supervision. This description and evaluation was based on the recognition that participatory management had at the time of writing been well integrated into contemporary supervisory theory.

On the basis of the principles of participatory management in supervision discussed and evaluated in chapter 5, the discussion and evaluation in this chapter focusses on aspects of the theories of scientific management, behavioral science, and management science as they are applied in supervisory practice. Firstly, the discussion and evaluation focussed on participatory norms, values, and attitudes used by supervisors and supervisees in their individual and collective capacities.

The required knowledge, skills, and attributes that supervisors and supervisees apply in a participatory way; the various features of the supervisors' and supervisees' motivation to operate participatively; the type of supervisory leadership commensurate with participatory management; and the use of contemporary techniques that traditionally aid processes for the attainment of more efficient and effective operation were elaborated on as components of the supervisory system.

The discussion in this chapter thus formed a system of interrelated, interdependent components that highlighted the socio-technical character of participatory management in supervision given the emphasis on technological, environmental, and sentimental aspects. These aspects underpin the overal operationalisation of participatory management in supervision. The ensuing chapter describes and discusses in more detail the conditions that could comprise the operational environment of participatory management as it might be found inside the organisational setting.

CHAPTER 7

ORGANISATIONAL CONDITIONS UNDER WHICH PARTICIPATORY MANAGEMENT IS PRACTICED

7.1 Introduction

It is held by Kadushin (1985 : 31) that social work has from its inception been organisationally based. As part of social work, participatory management in supervision would therefore have the same location. It is further assumed that organisational conditions would impact on participatory management in supervision in different ways, as they would impact on the broader practice of social work.

In this chapter, the discussion and evaluation of conducive as well as non-conducive conditions are treated as systems of interacting, interdependent elements of structure, technology, and people. This approach is motivated by the belief that the participatory values and attitudes of supervisors and supervisees, and their form of participatory management, are affected by organisational or situational factors. In other words, those factors would either help or hinder the process of participation between them (Abels and Murphy 1981 : 3; Kreitner 1986 : 405).

Alternatively, it is possible that the attitudes and values of supervisors and supervisees could also contribute to the creation of poor organisational conditions for participatory management in supervision. The discussion and evaluation thus take such attitudes and values into account.

7.2 Criteria for organisational suitability

The organisational criteria for acceptable participatory practice in supervision include conceptual and philosophical understanding of, and appropriate attitude towards, participatory management, relevant staff arrangements, performance expectations, conditions of employment, and the need for liaison with the community they serve. Whereas, as propagated by Hurlbert (1992 : 64), '...supervisors need to recognise that some of the old worker subservience found in traditional supervisory relationships is giving way to a new atmosphere of shared worker assessment and participatory management ', organisations that are able to meet the above criteria would indeed create an atmosphere of shared responsibility beyond the confines of the supervisory relationship, thereby spreading the advantages of participation more widely in the organisational context. The ensuing discussion are regarded as the primary criteria by which human service organisations would be able to advance the practice of participation in their professional work.

7.2.1 Acceptance of participatory management philosophy

The presence and perpetuation of supervisors in supervisory practice in social work adds validity to the claim by by Crow and Odewahn (1987 : 28) that organisational control of social work practice is partly bureaucratic in nature. Without in any way denouncing the role of supervisors, Kadushin (1985 : 471-472; and 1992 i : 513) advocates that participatory management would be one way of debureaucratising organisations and reallocating power. He draws attention to the enhancing of

worker autonomy when intensified implementation of participatory management is conducted. By this is meant the need for a greater sharing by supervisors of their functions with supervisees who remain subordinate and accountable to them.

In organisations where participatory management is the adopted mode of supervision management as well as in other divisions of the organisation, a supportive environment across departmental boundaries is created. Those departments concerned therefore share in the appreciation of the rationale of participation and offer assistance or share resources. In this way the values and attitudes of all concerned are influenced on a continual basis towards the acceptance and utilisation of participatory modes of operation throughout the organisation (Miringoff 1980 : 34-35; Peters and Waterman 1982 : 13-15).

It was empirically established that some organisations were indeed showing an inclination towards participatory modes of operation in certain actions and activities. Examples of these were put to supervisors and supervisees, who responded to the degree shown in Table 7.1 below.

Table 7.1 Participatory management in practice

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Inadequate		Adequate		Excessive	
	S	SW	S	SW	S	SW
consensual decision-making	38%(8)	38%(32)	62%(13)	58%(49)	0%(0)	4%(3)
collaborative action	38%(8)	36%(31)	62%(13)	60%(50)	5%(1)	4%(3)
appropriate autonomy	38%(8)	30%(25)	62%(13)	70%(59)	0%(0)	0%(0)

The low scores obtained for both supervisors and supervisees in Table 7.1 above are not resounding evidence that participatory management was well used in the agencies where respondents were employed. However, they do show a leaning towards it in actions that echo a willingness to have staff participation in decision-making on the basis of collective opinions; to work together in joint occupational efforts; and, to have independent functioning and self-control of work. Overal, these actions represent a willingness to increase the empowerment of workers, to be flexible through participation rather than be constrained by autocracy, to employ means of networking rather than autocracy, thus avoiding losing touch with their constituencies of recipient communities (Hall 1993 : 361; Herman 1991 : 26).

7.2.2 Climate and working environment

The consensual decision-making, collaborative action, and autonomy associated with participatory management have the capacity to contribute to the creation of a climate and working environment in the organisation resembling that to be found in

the Theory Z organisation of Ouchi (1981). This type of organisation has the capacity to generate an overall, organisational atmosphere of cooperative intent in an informal, increasingly egalitarian fashion, integrating management and non-management staff into a closely-knit group (Hardcastle 1991 : 66-67). As far as the supervisory setting is concerned, these conditions also prevail although supervisors and supervisees operate as participatory managers, each according to their role differentiation.

Ideal working conditions would also arise from the close proximity achieved between the members of staff in an environment in which participation is the preferred mode of management. For example, it is likely that differences in values, attitudes, and beliefs would transcend departmental barriers, encouraging intra-departmental contact, and reducing excessive reliance on peer approval and the 'us-versus-them' phenomenon between peers and adminisitrative seniors. In practical terms, staff might be motivated to greater efficiency in this culture, which would be further embellished by the introduction of reward methods and fair personnel policies (Deal and Kennedy 1983 : 498-505; Ouchi 1981 : 58-79; Stoner and Freeman 1989 : 439).

Elements of consensus, collaboration, contact across departmental barriers, good career prospects, and professional respect would also combine to form working conditions in which a climate conducive for participatory action between supervisors and supervisees might be created. In Table 7.2 below these elements

are shown to have elicited positive responses by supervisors and supervisees with regard to their own situations.

Table 7.2 Suitable organisational conditions for participatory management

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Inadequate		Adequate		Excessive	
	S	SW	S	SW	S	SW
departmenta-lisation	33%(7)	32%(27)	62%(13)	64%(54)	5%(1)	4%(3)
contact within departments	29%(6)	29%(24)	66%(14)	71%(60)	5%(1)	0%(0)
rewarding career opportunities	33%(7)	32%(27)	62%(13)	68%(57)	5%(1)	0%(0)

The scores attributed to supervisors and supervisees in Fig 7.2 above may be viewed as indicative of a general satisfaction about the extent to which those conditions add to the established fact that participatory management had indeed existed in the organisations surveyed. Taken **in toto**, the sum total of the responses indicates a normative base reflecting the organisations' ways of working and methods of coordinating (Handy 1987 : 175). It therefore adds to the assumption that a favorable situation existed in which the consolidation and development of participatory management in the organisations concerned was a good prospect.

7.2.3 Staff structure and functions

Current supervision is firmly grounded in the principles of reduced bureacracy, increased self-control of the work of

supervisors and supervisees rather than an over reliance on supervisors' role as persons of authority, and free and flexible communicative channels among them (Hall 1993 : 26). If these participatory principles are applied on a broader basis throughout the entire organisation the ideal structure and functions for staff would be created. The presence and application of these principles would also cause constant connectedness between staff and an equitable distribution of the capacity to influence each other (Falck 1988 : 32-35; Handy 1987 : 309; Howe 1986 : 160; Miles 1980 : 17).

Staff connectedness must be a linkage between departments as a basic condition, to be exercised on the basis of conditional accessibility; that is, selective interactions or interchanges according to purpose, need, and rules of conduct. These forms of communication between staff, already well used by supervisors and supervisees in contemporary supervisory practice, can, regardless of quality, only ease interrelationships across departmental barriers, enhance overal working conditions, and allow an exercise of the staff's capacity to influence each other (Falck 1988 : 32-35).

To illustrate how these interrelationships are used, and the constant connectedness between departments and a group of supervisors and supervisees using participatory management in supervision, a hypothetical juxtaposition of the latter group and departments such as 'administration', 'fundraising', and 'maintenance' is shown in Figure 7.1 below.

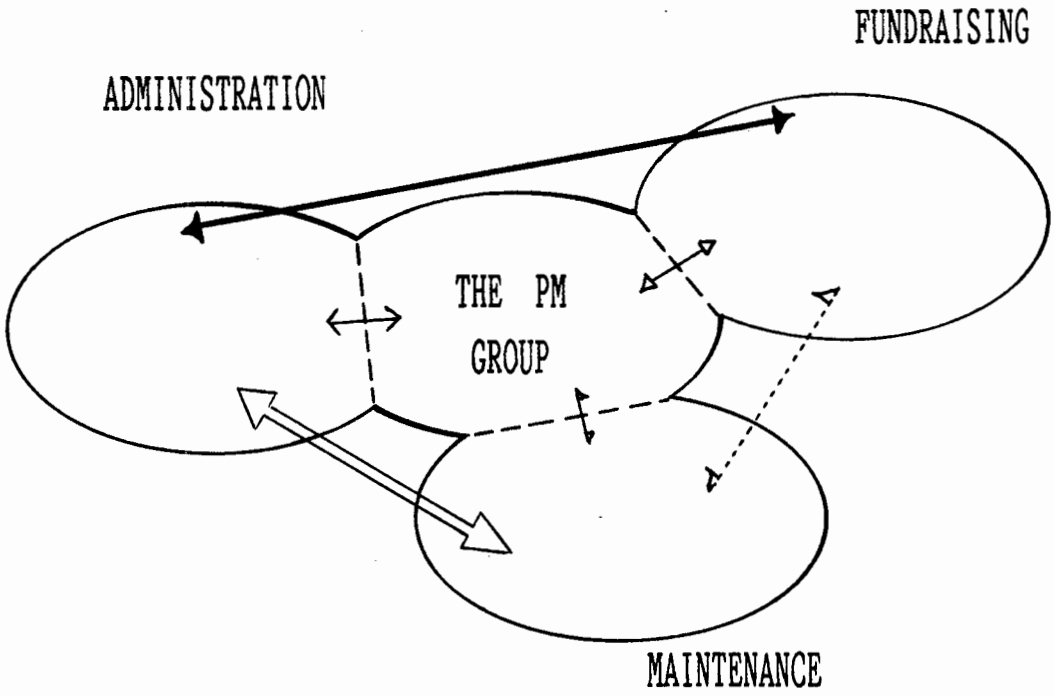

Fig 7.1 Connectedness and communication between departments

The double-headed arrows in Fig 7.1 denote the communication and conditional accessibility that might vary from department to department in frequency and nature; the broken lines that create divisions between the departments and the group of supervisors and supervisees denote the constant connectedness between them. The overal characteristic of the network of relationships thus formed is further representative of inter-departmental contact and communication arising from departmentalisation and specialisation. Whereas this specialisation may have reflected bureaucratic elements whereby distinct, routine, and well-defined tasks were assigned to staff consistent with Weber's descriptions (1947, cited by Handy 1987 : 192), the hypothetical situation nonetheless resembles Likert's (1967, cited by Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 30) System 4 organisation in which the full potential of

human motivation and capabilities might be tapped in the process of interrelations and communication. Current supervisory practice is thus already well disposed to the broader achievement of the latter benefits given its own participatory management mode of operation.

An illustration of the degree to which leanings towards the above was found to apply in the practice setting is represented in the scores by supervisors and supervisees in Table 7.3 below.

Table 7.3 Elements of staff structure

N=21 Supervisors (s)
N=84 Supervisees (sw)

	Inadequate		Adequate		Excessive	
	s	sw	s	sw	s	sw
specialisation	0%(0)	0%(0)	81%(17)	89%(75)	19%(4)	11% (9)
communication platforms	0%(0)	4%(3)	91%(19)	69%(58)	9%(2)	27%(23)

Clearly, the information in Table 7.3 above is strong evidence of a favorable perception by both supervisors and supervisees of the adequacy of specialisation and means of communication as elements of the staff structure in their organisations. The data also affirms Kadushin's (1985 : 47; and 1992 i : 45) contention that most social work organisations operate on the basis of specialised structures. It may thus be concluded that if staff have adequate ways and means whereby they might, according to Likert (1967, as cited by Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 120), be able to communicate in all directions among themselves and across

departmental barriers, the chances of an easing of interrelationships and a sharing in decision-making would be heightened.

7.2.4 Community liaison

It is logical to assume that human service organisations in which participatory management is applied would establish some form of relationship with those communities over and above those already established through routine problem-solving contact on the direct practice level. Menefee and Thompson (1994 : 18) suggest, for example, that as part of their communication skills, managements should impart information to communities. This forms the basis of their public relations work.

However, apart from using its public relations work to communicate information, Kadushin (1985 : xiv) holds that it should be used to '...carefully monitor the basis for their continuing social and political support', and that there should be other work related reasons why community contact must be maintained. This view had earlier been concurred by Austin (1983 : 9), and Peters and Waterman (1982 : 13-14) both sources of whom had stressed that recipients of service should be given opportunity to express their views and needs about their own situations and thereby guide human service organisations in finding ways to improve the quality of their service. This contibution of views and ideas by communities might well help creative and dynamic organisations to shape the way they organise and manage their human services (Weiner 1990 : 56).

As Crow and Odewahn (1987 : 112) also observe, the process of encouraging community participation in planning services through regular liaison with them is initiated by firstly getting to know the community and its tolerance level. Some communities are not au fait with the workings of service mechanisms since their main concern are only survival issues. However, in those communities where understanding and knowledge of such mechanisms have been established, a subsequent launch of specific actions, like keeping the community informed about, inter alia, the professional implementation of participatory management in supervision as means towards achieving improved quality of service, is undertaken. In that same process, communities would be granted the chance to reciprocate by offering suggested ways of consolidating or renovating organisational systems (Skidmore 1983 : 14).

Informing client communities of their operational systems allows organisations to educate those communities of their preference for a participatory type of service management. This educative function is in fulfilment of an obligation to send out information to those communities as rightful owners of that information. The literature (Aldrich 1978 : 68; Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 112; Miringoff 1980 : 160-162; Peters and Waterman 1982 : 13-16; Sarri and Hasenfeld 1978 : 7; and, Steiner 1977 : 175-178) is predominantly in agreement on ways whereby the education of communities is achieved in this respect. To a large extent their views and proposals overlap. Relying on this literature, the following are an adapted form of its validation of how

organisations using participatory management approaches are able to achieve ongoing liaison with recipient communities in the endeavour to propogate and sustain the acceptance of participatory approaches in supervision, as well as to disseminate information about it:

(a) Organisations convey to communities their commitment to the effective participatory management approach as a means of aiding the processes of problem-solving. This information to the community exposes the organisations' adherence to a division of labour involving a granting of professional power to the direct worker (supervisee) that facilitates better benefits through subsequent participatory ways of problem-solving.

(b) Organisations reach out rather than react or respond to the own initiatives of their potential client groups in the community with the view to educating them on the effectiveness of participation in helping supervisees to optimally address their problems.

(c) As a form of organisational responsiveness to communities' growing expectation of greater control over the work of human service organisations, these organisations allow free communication and reciprocal action between communities and supervisees engaged in participatory management in supervision.

7.2.5 Employment policies

The adaptation and a heightening of the professional status, function, recognition, power, and authority for supervisors and supervisees respectively through participatory management in supervision, warrant appropriate work specifications,

remuneration, and career opportunities for them. Aspects such as employment agreements in accordance with agreed tasks and duties, salary considerations commensurate with skills and experience, and future prospects for vertical advances to other positions of authority, are brought into the contract of employment between supervisors, supervisees, and their employers. These may be regarded as the enrichment characteristics of their work as well as the composite of a job enlargement programme for supervisees in particular, who, in settings wherein participatory approaches are used to a lesser degree, would not have had managerial tasks like those assigned to them in current supervisory contexts (Schermerhorn et al 1982 : 181-186; Stoner and Freeman 1989 : 439; Wren 1987 : 283).

Whereas it would be arbitrary for organisations to determine **remuneration packages** for supervisors and supervisees on the basis of varying organisational circumstances and settings, it is nonetheless considered feasible to link such packages to **reward systems** commensurate with **career paths.** Packages are part of an organisational mechanism designed to promote individual motivation and growth of supervisors and supervisees especially in so far as they are prepared to take risks and able to attain goals, and achieve organisational effectiveness. Satisfaction, motivation, performance, and rewards are therefore all integrated (Imundo 1980: 104; Gibson et al 1985 : 183-184; Steiner 1977 : 32).

In practice, supervisors and supervisees were found to have closely shared in the belief that they were well motivated as a result of positive working conditions in their organisations.. Career propects may be seen as an example of such conditions, and the extent of the supervisor's and supervisees' perception in this respect is shown in Table 7.4 below.

Table 7.4 Career opportunities at organisations

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Inadequate	**Adequate**	**Excessive**
Supervisors	33% (7)	62% (13)	5% (1)
Supervisees	32% (27)	68% (57)	0% (0)

The findings given in Table 7.4 above denote that opportunity for advancement on the basis of professional recognition was favorably perceived by supervisors and supervisees. In terms of Handy's (1987 : 69) analysis, conditions like these prevent the creation of stressful situations. It is thus assumed that as long as career prospects remain adequate and certain, supervisors' and supervisees' work will not be adversely affected by negative reactions on their part. On the other hand, opportunities for career advancement and are likely to motivate supervisors and supervisees in their work performance, lead to job satisfaction, as well as help maintain morale at an acceptable level (Kadushin 1992 i : 185).

7.3 Barriers and limitations

Situations might be found wherein all or some of the above criteria for organisational suitability for participatory management practice within supervision or in other organisational departments, are not present. Together with unsatisfactory supervisee and supervisor characteristics, like poor training and lack of experience in participatory management, situations that do not meet the criteria would be exascerbated, and impede or limit the application of participatory management in supervision. The following is a description of how such non-conducive situations for participation arise, and how supervisors and supervisees resolve them.

7.3.1 Organisational barriers and limitations

Although the perception of supervisors and supervisees appear to validate to some extent current organisational use of participatory management in supervision, situations are encountered wherein participation is hampered by adverse organisational conditions. For example, situations arise wherein it is claimed that participation is not, in the words of Ables and Murphy (1981 : 10) '...what ought to be, all things considered'.

Packard (1993 : 63) in his empirical research of the views of managers and workers on the dimensions of participation in organisational decision-making, had found that a lack of belief in the capabilities of workers could be regarded as an example of undesireable organisational situations. Such situations become

the source of pressure bringing low morale, frustration, and undistinquished individual performance to the fore (Goldberg et al 1989 : 238; Klein 1991 : 315). When these negative reactions and conditions are found prevalent in respect of the capabilities of supervisees to participate with supervisors in decision-making, their relationship would be significantly disadvantaged.

7.3.2 Supervisor barriers and limitations

Supervisors' inability or difficulty in practicing the participatory mode of management in supervision emanate from any of several sources. Van Biljon (1994 : 190) and Packard (1993 : 63) identify lack of training as a likely reason for poor performance. Several other reasons, however, could account for poor performance. In his analysis of possible causes for practice difficulties, Kadushin (1985 : 78) offers some realistic assumptions in this regard. Apathy, lack of conviction in the rationale for participation with supervisees, an unfounded fear of loss of authority as supervisors, or lack of faith in supervisees' capability for participation are some of the common sources proposed.

Seen from another perspective, situations may occur where participatory management in supervision presents as a new, untried mode of operation, and may specifically cause resistance to change from the previously autocratic styles of supervision. These could include a refusal by supervisors to surrender any of their tasks on the assumption that their supervisees would usurp their authority and power, or their refusal to delegate could

emanate from an ignorance of the professional benefits of participatory management (Kotter and Schlesinger 1979 : 107-109). These attitudinal and knowledge-based deficiencies would be equally effective in limiting the use of participatory management in supervision.

7.3.3 Supervisee barriers and limitations

Supervisees' inability or difficulty in, or resistance to, practising the participatory mode of management in supervision also emanate from any of several sources. As a result, their performance in supervision is adversely affected.

Whereas Parkard's (1993 : 63) and Van Biljon's (1994 : 190) contentions about possible lack of training as barriers or limitations may well apply in the case of supervisees too, Cooper (1982 : 91-92), Goldberg et al (1989 : 188-189), and Holloway and Brager (1989 : 134) draw attention to negative attitudinal and competence-related sources that at times cause staff in human service organisations to lose interest in participation, resulting in further stress in them. Transposed to the supervisory context in respect of supervisees, examples of such causes could include:

* anger-borne avoidance of responsibility and meetings;
* uncertainty about whether participatory management in supervision can reduce the pressure on supervisees and supervisors in times of pressure;
* a lack of know-how in participatory management;

* a lack of clear role perception; and,
* feelings of professional inadequacy.

7.3.4 Methods of handlimg barriers and limitations

The barriers and limitations identified can be handled in different ways, of which education and communication are to be shown as separate as well as interlinked examples:

(1) Education and communication

Suggestions made by the literature (Cooper and Croyle 1984 : 395-426; Hurlbert 1992 : 64-66; Huse and Cummings 1985 : 20; Kadushin 1985 : 80, and 1992 i : 337) correspond with communicative ways that would be adapted in practice for the purposes of clarifying the need for, and the logic of, participatory management to organisations, supervisors and supervisees. By adapting those ways offered by the literature, the following specific steps would be taken to respond to situations of resistance or lack of information:

(a) 'Unfreezing' the thinking of those concerned, or helping the organisations, supervisors, and supervisees to 'unlearn' their opposing states of consciousness by clearly conveying the need for a change to, and the logic of, a participatory mode of management. This education through communication would attempt to make them perceive and accept the rationale of participatory management.

(b) 'Refreezing' current values, attitudes, and behaviors relevant to supervision, to more participatory ones that would become normative practice, using continual positive reinforcement

and appropriate incentive measures to support the 'refreezing' process.

(c) Engaging the experience of a trained educator and communicator who is able to foster and encourage identification and internalisation of the attitudes and values associated with participatory management in supervision so that participatory thinking by organisations, and participatory behavior between supervisors and supervisees can be adopted on the basis of better understanding of the ethos of participation.

Clearly, the educative process would be dependent on the communicative skills of the educator, the identify of whom can be any suitable organisational personnel, including non-resisting supervisors and supervisees. The only requirement would be that they are suitably armed with participatory knowledge and communicative skills.

The skilled educator uses his communicative skills in the employment of management information systems (MIS's), regarded as an aid to illustrate the manner in which participating supervisors and supervisees might control information in the execution of their supervisory tasks. Consistent with Richan's (1983 : 145) opinion, the educator-user of the MIS plays a pivotal role in the use of this system, one that is capable of serving as the major source and means of communicating reliable information. The educator would be in a position of power whereby he would retrieve information in the educative process as he deems fit. Once retrieved, this information is communicated in

meetings, personal discussions, or group sessions in furtherance of the purpose to educate learners about the efficacy of participation.

(2) Participation and involvement

The participation and involvement of supervisors, supervisees, and other relevant organisational staff in a joint process of handling barriers and limitations is regarded as necessary for the success of the educative and communicative methods. Preceded by an intensified participation in decision-making (Herman 1991 : 25), the implication is that the above processes of 'unfreezing', 'unlearning', and 'refreezing' might be undertaken by all who are internal to the organisation and whose performance is likely to be most concerned with participatory management in supervision. Their participation and involvement would be in the form of the following main actions, based on the formulations of Barker (1987 : 28), Kotter and Schesinger (1979: 107-109), and Lawlor (1982: 140-141):

(a) Participants develop a close commitment to the implementation of participatory management by continually expressing and acting upon the processes of implementation, as well as removing barriers and limitations through the acquisition and spread of information about it.

(b) Participants readily integrate into that implementation any new information which they might periodically acquire, thus assisting in adapting their participatory actions to changing conditions.

(c) In situations where conflict occur among supervisors,

supervisees, and other staff about the processes of participation, all concerned would willingly join together in an attempt to identify the sources of conflict and devise ways to manage them.

(d) Alienation is avoided by supervisors, supervisees, and other staff by getting closer to those conditions that affect their work.

(e) Participation by supervisors, supervisees, and other organisational staff provides them with greater job satisfaction as well as an improved problem-solving ability since all parties concerned would contribute on equal terms towards a common goal to find satisfactory solutions to problems.

(3) Facilitation and support

In situations where supervisees experience a need for security, despite the above methods of feeding their intellect, filling knowledge gaps, using effective relationships, encouraging qualities of commitment, and showing professional recognition, facilitative and supportive help by supervisors would be used to instil security in them. According to Schermerhorn et al (1982 : 497), fear of the 'unknown' is the cause of insecurity. The above action thus attempts to remove any such fear about participatory management.

Alternatively, a lack of adequate knowledge of participatory management may elicit a fear of failure in supervisees; or, they could experience a 'reality shock syndrome', caused by an inability to reconcile their own job expectations with the

realities of the work situation created by the participatory mode of management. Given the potential of more autonomy, professional recognition, and effectiveness, supervisees who experience such 'shock' could have much of it removed by supervisors who would listen to their problems of adjustment to participatory management in supervision (Hall 1993 : 362).

Supervisors have the option of using formalised systems of support for helping supervisees overcome participatory performance pressures. These systems are run on a time-limited, focussed basis in order to inculcate in pressured members a determination to develop a full affinity for the participatory mode of management, to help them to maintain their morale, to encourage professional growth, and to foster a parallel process and spirit of interdependence between themselves and their supervisors. These actions are geared to make the facilitative and supportive role more effective (Kirschenbaum and Glaser 1978 : 12).

7.4 Summary

Inherent in the conceptual basis of participatory management in supervision was the prerequisite for conducive operating conditions for it to be applied within human service organisations. However, the discussion and evaluation of the conceptual basis highlighted the possible creation of operating difficulties should the desired operating conditions not be present.

On the assumption that participatory management in supervision needs organisational support in different forms, it was thus evaluated to what extent participatory management thinking would permeate all divisions of organisations in which supervision is practiced, the appropriate capabilities of ideal organisations, and those conditions which might dilute their ideal nature.

The discussion and evaluation treated organisations as multifaceted, interlinking units capable of providing conducive conditions for participatory management, as well as the means to counter conditions that might impede their participatory operation. The first part of the discussion focussed on organisations' operational values and concepts, their internal atmosphere and working environment, staff structures and functions, their role in educating the community about their use of participatory management, and their special internal staff employment policies for those engaged in participatory management. The interlinking between supervisors, supervisees, and others in the organisational setting was highlighted.

Assuming that conditions might exist that could impede the participatory management of supervisors and supervisees, the latter half of the discussion firstly concentrated on various organisational and worker barriers and limitations each with their own distinctive nature. Workers could include those other than supervisors and supervisees who might occupy positions of varying importance and authority in organisations and whose attitudes and actions could have a bearing on their participatory

performance. Secondly, the discussion offered remedial and corrective methods considered most effective to circumvent those barriers and limitations. They were educative, communicative, participative, facilitative, and supportive in nature. To facilitate the methods of response, techniques and sources of information like management information systems were proposed in forms that were considered appropriate for application in participatory management settings. Once organisational conditions are conducive to participatory management and possible impediments are removed, the operationalisation of participatory management is then made possible in the form of the various processes and actions that are discussed in the following chapters.

CHAPTER 8

PLANNING AND ORGANISING IN THE OPERATIONALISATION OF PARTICIPATORY MANAGEMENT

8.1 Introduction

The discussion and evaluation of the various processes that constitute the operationalisation of participatory management in supervision would be consistent with the logical sequence of the six processes included in the definition of management. Planning and organising are therefore discussed in this sub-section as the initial processes whereby the operationalisation takes place.

As would apply to the processes of leading and controlling, planning and organising are treated here as interlinking processes, the one having a bearing on the other. Illustrations are given in the discussion to show how this linkage is achieved and the effects that it creates in the work of supervisors and supervisees.

Attention is also given to particular forms, techniques, and tools of planning appropriate to participatory management. Aspects of socialising, orientation, and conflict management are discussed as illustrations of the organising process.

8.2 Planning

Throughout the literature on management in general practice and the human services (Ables and Murphy 1981 : 117; Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 7-9; Griffin 1993 : 148; Patti 1983 : 7;

Stoner and Freeman 1989 : 139) planning is seen as the fundamental process of selecting appropriate goals and determining how to achieve them in the most efficient and effective ways. It precedes the processes of organising, leading, and controlling, and as far as social work is concerned, it is regarded by Botha (1985 : 9) as a basic supervisory function.

In participatory management, the planning process would involve the contribution by supervisees to the planning by supervisors in selecting appropriate goals and determining objectives for the most efficient and effective fulfilment of their work activities. This planning consists of specific steps as a first action towards efficiency and effectiveness.

8.2.1 Steps in the planning process

(1) Setting of goals and objectives

Skills in planning require that the planner lays emphasis on the qualitative characteristics of goals, objectives, processes, and aids; the appropriateness of knowledge, positive attitudes, and the use of supporting skills like computer literacy ; also, on the importance of a participatory approach for the setting of goals and objectives. The literature (Barker 1987 : 93; Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 7-9; Durst 1988 : 74; Gowdy and Freeman 1993 : 66; Kakabadse 1982 : 50-51; Kolb 1984 : 102; Patti 1983 : 37; Vanderevelde 1979 : 75; Weiner 1990 : 252) overlaps consistently in laying emphasis on these aspects of goal- and objective-setting processes. In accordance with these aspects,

the following practical actions are used in supervision in the process of setting goals and objectives:

(a) Supervisors endeavour to be clear on the purpose, mission, tactics and all available resources needed for goal attainment of supervisees. However, they avoid deviating from organisational goals in the process of setting goals and objectives, referred to by Miringoff (1980 : 51) as 'goal displacement', by which is meant that operative goals and official goals are not synonymous. This view is supported since supervisors set their own strategic plans, operational goals, and goals for personal growth and gratification of supervisees, whereas their employers would have the organisational equivalent of these goals.

(b) Clear time-frames are kept so that the accomplishment of objectives can be visualised in realistic terms. Without time-frames, supervisees flounder in their efforts to reach goals and objectives as the result of unrealistic targets that supervisors may have set with the aid of unclear deadlines.

(c) Supervisors continually express a willingness to be flexible about goals and objectives, establish new ones when appropriate, and continually review them. Project plans used by supervisees therefore have the capacity for change on this basis.

(d) Supervisors and supervisees try to obtain adequate knowledge of their situations and the employing organisation, its internal environment, and its external operating environment. In particular, a well-developed information network based on this triangular source is regarded as an advantage in avoiding a clash of interest, unnecessary duplication of services, or professional rancour among themselves as well as other organisation members.

The information network guides supervisors and supervisees in decisions about where to focus their energies and committment without negative consequences or repetition.

(e) As a team of professionals, supervisees rely on self-confidence in their ability to achieve goals and objectives. The absence of confidence prevents supervisors from setting challenging goals and objectives with the participation of supervisees, which in turn causes the latter to resort to directionless endeavours in rendering direct service to their clients.

(f) As leaders, supervisors facilitate the maintenance of high, substantive participation in goal setting by supervisees so that goals and objectives thus set may be identified with by all concerned. This identification is regarded as the first opportunity for real participation.

(g) The adoption of novel ways of setting about reaching goals and objectives are routinely practised by supervisors and supervisees within flexible action plans. Where such plans are part of an integration process of matching tasks, the type of team members, and resources, then the opportunity for creativity allow supervisors and supervisees to meet freely and discuss issues, develop new services, identify new needs, plan effective change, and place greater emphasis on collaboration than authority relationships would.

In current supervisory settings, one of the primary tasks of supervisors has been shown to be the setting of goals and objectives with the participation of supervisees. Validation of

this situation was achieved in the evaluation of the practice of the supervisors who took part in the empirical study. In answer to the question concerning the ways in which supervisors engaged in planning exercises, responding supervisors and supervisees scored similarly in declaring that supervisors were predominantly setting goals and objectives frequently rather than at all times. Their respective scores are shown in Table 8.1 below.

Table 8.1 The setting of goals and objectives by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors (s)
N=84 Supervisees (sw)

	Never		Seldom		Frequently		At all times	
	s	sw	s	sw	s	sw	s	sw
goal-setting	0%(0)	0%(0)	0%(0)	4%(3)	76%(16)	74%(62)	24%(5)	22%(19)
setting of objec-tives	0%(0)	0%(0)	0%(0)	2%(2)	76%(16)	88%(74)	24%(5)	10% (8)

According to the scores shown in Table 8.1 above, the high number of supervisors who were said to have frequently engaged in setting goals and objectives rather than at all times, seemed to suggest that supervisors were indeed participatory in allowing supervisees to share in the completion of these tasks. It may be further assumed that in the planning of programmes, their participation is facilitated in the setting of goals and objectives (Gowdy and Freeman 1993 : 66; Vandervelde 1979 : 75). This would support the contention that supervisees are engaged in goals and objectives for themselves at all times, and thus are constantly responsible for decision-making on their plans of

action (Vroom and Jago 1974, cited by Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 141).

(2) Situational assessment

A second step in the planning process involves the assessment of the immediate working situation in which supervisors and supervisees find themselves. Factors found in the organisational environment dictate the direction in which the team plans its course of action. For example, financial and statistical data, or technological techniques through computers used in the organisations, are therefore incorporated in plans of action. This approach, according to Crow and Odewahn's (1987: 119), and McKaskey's (1974 : 281-291) descriptions, is consistent with the contingency and directional planning approach.

However, contingency and directional planning draw attention to the fact that the presence of appropriate goals wrongly tailored to situations would be as unacceptable as having none at all. The assessment of contingency factors thus precede the formulation of goals or objectives in pursuit of appropriateness.

The pre-planning action was found to be well integrated in the functions of supervisors which was thus consistent with current supervisory practice. This was clearly evidenced in the perception of supervisors and supervisees who were empirically surveyed. Their perceptions are given in Table 8.2 below.

Table 8.2 Assessment of work situations by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	76% (16)	24% (5)
Supervisees	0% (0)	0% (0)	76% (64)	24% (20)

The findings in Table 8.2 above further illustrate a strong attachment by the supervisors in current supervisory settings to Crow and Odewahn's (1987 : 119) and Mckaskey's (1974 : 281) viewpoints about the importance of fully gauging situations before action is taken, as well as their serious regard for a correct preparation for planning on the basis of contingency factors. The extent of this practice can be expected to add positively to the quality of service rendered both supervisors who in turn would act as good role models for their supervisees in respect of the assessment of work situations prior to action (Kadushin 1992 i : 156).

(3) Strategic and operational planning

By setting strategic and operational plans for the implementation of their mission, supervisors and supervisees provide for themselves the particular reason for their existence, by taking fundamental decisions on alternative future implications of their actions, shaping and guiding their actions towards their set aims (Bryson 1990 : 5). Consistent with Hayes's and Wheelwright's (1984 : 27-28) discourse on strategic and operational plans, supervisors and supervisees participate in setting specific decisions with the full awareness of the inherent risk of failure

that would always accompany those decisions, act upon decisions in ways appropriate to their roles, and allocate resources appropriately so that planned action might be easily achieved. These aspects also combine to form what Drucker (1973 : 122) and Schermerhorn (1984 : 145) describe as a fundamental method of tackling the work task with a clear focus on the future and as a way to ensure a positive relationship with the external environment in reaching out towards that future.

Guidelines provided by Hayes and Wheelwright (1984 : 27-28) on specific, practical tasks and functions that should be included in strategic plans, are used by supervisors and supervisees to assist them in their decision-making on long-term goals:

(a) A time frame in which activities are to be completed and in which they should be evaluated are set beforehand so that operations are not extended unnecessarily;

(b) A forecast is attempted about the expected impact that activities and actions could have on the recipients of the service rendered;

(c) Efforts at achieving goals are concentrated by narrowing their range of pursuits, focussing on chosen activities, and doing what is best known. This approach also closely resemble Peters and Waterman's (1982 : 14) idea of 'sticking to the knitting', whereby conscious efforts are made not to undertake activities or actions that distract focus on set goals and objectives.

(d) A consistent pattern of decisions is adopted, wherein different decisions are made over time and in line with overal strategy. This decision-making procedure is possible in the participatory management context without difficulty since supervisors and supervisees are jointly responsible for decision-making that affect them.

(e) Following on from the adopted decision-making procedure, a wide spectrum of activities emanating from, and reinforcing, the strategy is accommodated. This variety of activities expand supervisees' range of choices in responding to the challenge of providing services to the community in the best ways possible.

The means for the achievement of supervisors' and supervisees' goals and objectives are specific in the form of actual operational and practical tasks. The development of operational plans resemble action routes of how best supervisees can deliver the specified service of the organisation. This step is therefore initiated by the identification of the alternative courses of action that might be pursued to this end (Schermerhorn 1984 : 118; Steiner 1977 : 16).

As far as **operational plans** are concerned, two types proposed by Stoner and Freeman (1989 : 146-147) seem particularly applicable in participatory management in supervision. In an adapted form they are the following:

Standing plans: These are established, standardised sets of decisions used by supervisors and supervisees to deal with recurring and predictable situations. They thereby conserve time

allotted for planning and decision-making since situations are handled in a predetermined, consistent manner. For example, procedures for the acceptance and canalising of new cases and projects, or rules requiring specific action when clients appear in interview rooms under the influence of alcohol, are implemented without the need for recurring decision-making about the desired action. However, adequate and appropriate provision for creative and novel ways of dealing with a variety of situations are allowed.

Single plans: These are detailed action plans that are not used repeatedly in the same form or format. When unique situations present themselves they require contingent considerations in planning. Examples of this type may include budgets and projects dictated to by varying service needs and operating conditions fashioned by available resources.

A predominant number of supervisees and supervisors engaged in current supervisory practice expressed confidence in the extent to which they or their supervisors had used strategic and operational plans in their work situations. The scores in Table 8.3 below are those obtained for supervisors and supervisees.

Table 8.3 The use of strategic and operational plans by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors (s)
N=84 Supervisors (sw)

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	5% (1)	5% (1)	76% (16)	14% (3)
Supervisees	0% (0)	0% (0)	77% (65)	23% (19)

As shown in Table 8.3 above, the predominant number of supervisors were not consistent in setting strategic and operational plans. This finding reflects the possibility that those plans that were indeed set by them had long-term significance and therefore obviated the necessity to set plans at all times. This form of planning would be particularly applicable in educational programmes whereby the long-term developmental change in the performance of supervisees is envisaged by supervisors, thus not requiring planning at all times (Kadushin 1992 i : 146).

8.2.2 Techniques and tools for planning

Techniques and tools used by supervisors and supervisees to aid the planning process include aspects of time-frames, various tasks specified within the time-frames, linkage of tasks into an interconnected whole, and logical sequencing of the actions associated with tasks so that the most efficient routes are taken to attain goals and objectives. The following are examples of such techniques and tools:

(1) Estimate date setting for task completion

Given that a task may, according to Pettes (1979 : 12-13), be defined as an activity that is more precise than duty, involving a fully worked out programme within a specified time scale and guided by specific goals, a method of date setting is routinely adopted that helps supervisees in this way. This method resembles that of H.L. Gantt (cited by Stoner and Freeman 1989 : 37), who introduced a chart showing the above features and which are used for the same purpose in the general workplace.

Based on the creation of H.L. Gantt (cited by Stoner and Freeman 1989 : 37), the chart depicted in Figure 8.1 below is a graphic planning and control method designed by the researcher, whereby a project or task is broken up into separate phases or sub-tasks, estimated starting and ending dates the determination of which both supervisors and supervisees would be involved in and on which they would agree. Three caseloads are shown in the Figure to illustrate how they are planned in terms of a time scale comprising 6 months, and activity phases for each one.

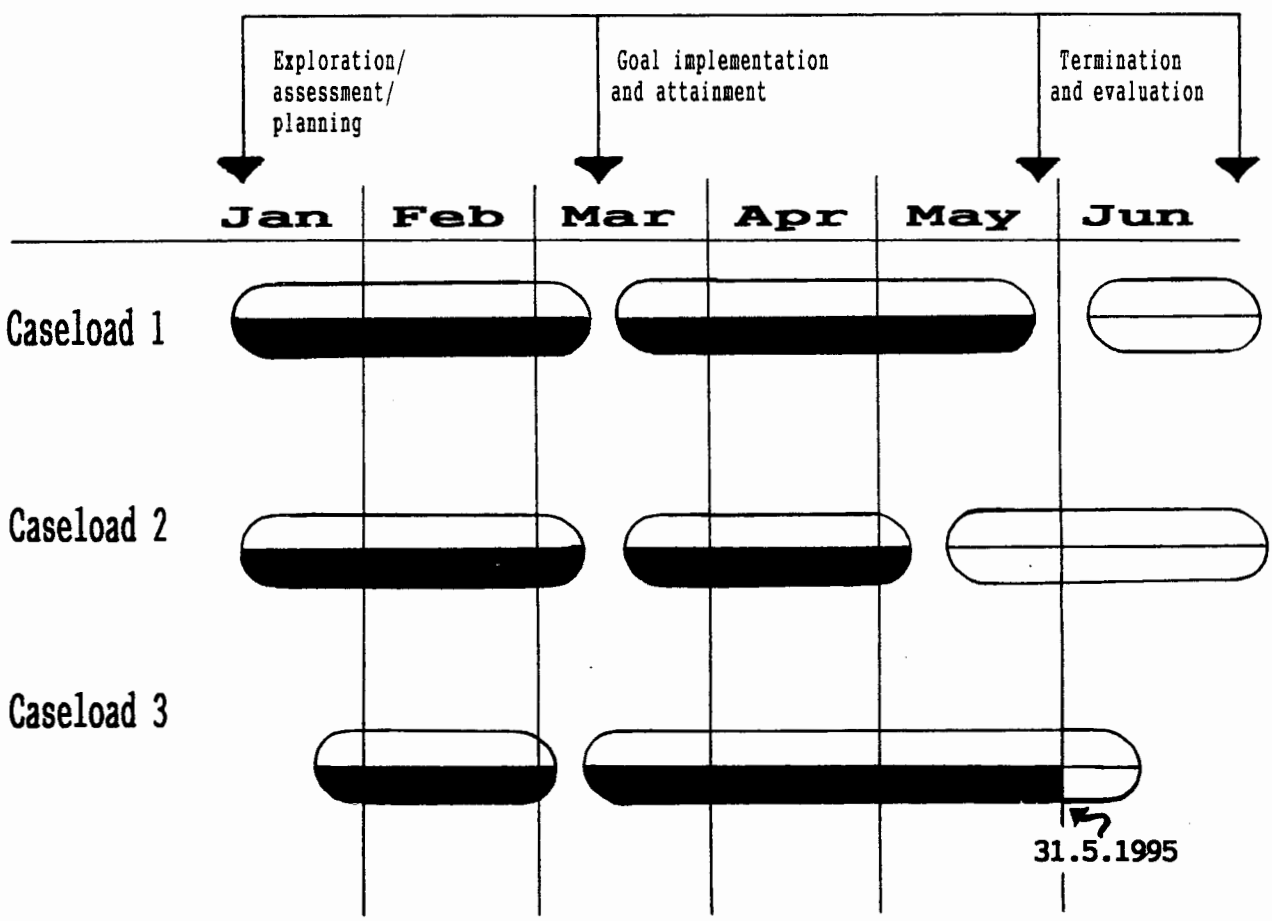

Fig 8.1 A method of caseload planning

The activity associated with intervention strategies in casework, like those described by Booley (1987 : 110-120), are

sub-divided into 3 phases as shown in Fig 8.1 above. The clear areas in the bars depict **planned tasks**, whereas the shaded areas are for **completed tasks**. When viewed in relation to the position of the bars for each caseload, the date of 31.5.1995 shown at the bottom of Fig 8.1 reflects that, at that date, the termination and evaluation phase for caseload 1 was due to start as planned; the same phase for caseload 2 had been planned for a mid-May commencement, but had not been done; and, that the goal implementation and attainment phase for caseload 3, though not completed, was on schedule as planned.

The manner in which the information provided by the chart in Figure 8.1 is used to keep track of the planned courses of action of supervisees is also applicable to supervisors who plan their own activities as supervisors. In the case of supervisees and supervisors the estimated date setting method allows leeway and flexibility in the starting and completion of tasks. Both would be able to use state-of-the-art technological means, like computerisation, to data-base and monitor their courses of action in the above manner (Ackerman 1995 : 24-25).

(2) Date setting for task completion

In situations where supervisors and supervisees prefer more precise timetables and programmes for planning their various work tasks, the chart in Figure 8.1 above is used in an enlarged form so that actual dates and extra activity may be plotted on it. This method allows for the sequence of operations or activity in a more systematic fashion and in conformity with predetermined

dates or periods of time in which activities have to be completed (Gitman and McDaniel 1983 : 238-240).

(3) Network scheduling

The Dictionary of Social Work (Barker 1987 : 61) expresses doubt about the effectiveness of the estimated date setting methods as a planning aid, claiming that it is inadequate to deal with the interconnectedness between activities. This view seems particularly appropriate to community work whereby the interconnectedness of the various sub-activities of role players in a project would indeed be necessary.

Apart from the need for showing the interconnectedness of activities, supervisees often find the planning and projecting of the completion dates of tasks on projects too hard to predict due to changing conditions in communities or the uncertainty about whether resources would be available. They nonetheless choose to specify the sequence of actions to be taken and the estimated time needed for each action, as well as to show the interconnectedness between these actions. This form of planning is aided by the use of the 'program evaluation and review technique' (PERT) which has distinct advantages (Schonberger 1972 : 64):

(a) Events and activities representing individual tasks are clearly identified and marked on a chart alongside specific points in time or periods of time taken, rather than restricting the projected activities or actions to specific dates or months of the year.

(b) The actions, activities, or events are entered on the chart in a sequential, logical, and integrated fashion. This method creates a network of action clearly tracking the route taken and the interconnectedness between them.
(c) A completed chart boldly displayed for all to see at all times serves as a constant reminder of the seriousness of the charted action course.
(d) The graphic design of the chart is an ongoing means for the review and evaluation of the action course, which might highlight the need for changes to planned activity.
(e) Time estimates are used to allow for positive and negative conditions that might impinge on planned activities or events.

To illustrate the PERT method, a hypothetical chart is depicted in Fig 8.2 below : the planning of an Afterschool Care Centre from the design to the launch and opening stages is represented. The circled numbers show the estimated number of weeks that each given activity and task is expected to take, the entire project estimated to take a total of 9 weeks; the arrows indicate the direction and path of the activity and task chain.

It is also to be noted that activities and tasks by supervisees may be undertaken under the guidance and support of supervisors in the participatory management setting of supervision. Alternatively, if supervisees are experienced and competent enough they would complete those activities and tasks independently and only have them approved and sanctioned by supervisors once plans are completed.

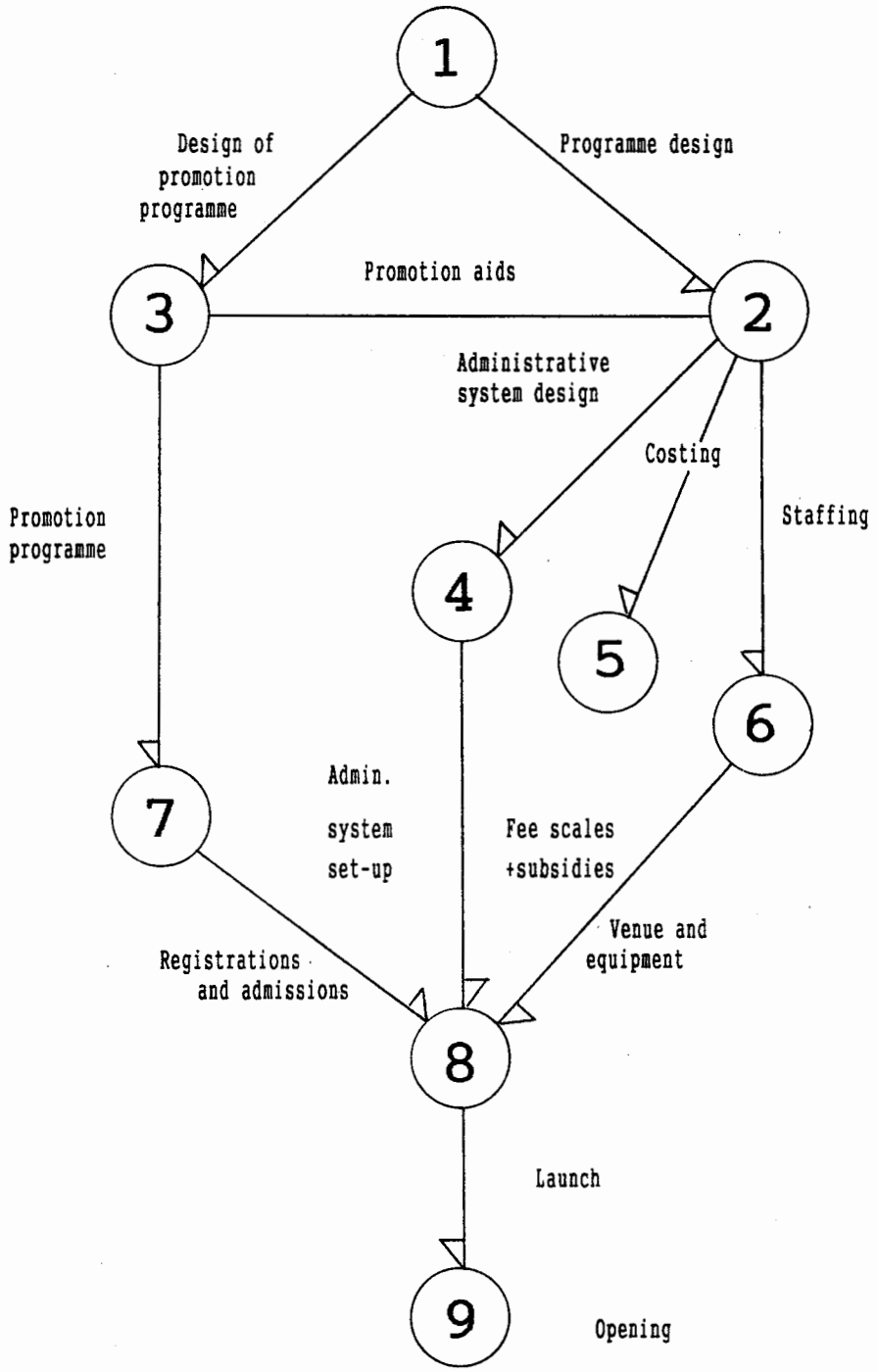

Fig 8.2 A method of project planning

The network of activity in Fig 8.2 above also illustrates which activities can be performed simultaneously, and which depend on the completion of predecessors. For example, the programme and the promotion of it may be designed simultaneously, whereas the setting of fee scales and the need for subsidies would be dependent on a previous exercise of costing estimates.

Once the chart is completed, it may be mounted, as in the case of the chart in Figure 8.1 (p 216), in an enlarged form on a wall for supervisees to see and review at all times. In this way, a continuous awareness of the project is created among supervisees, who also have the opportunity to make changes to the chart as needed. For example, changing the colour of the circles that denote time periods would be necessary so that progress made in the completion of each step towards the attainment of the final stage of the project can be clearly displayed.

The chances of introducing the use of the above techniques and aids cannot be gauged in the case of supervisors found engaging in direct practice at the time of writing. While the nature of their techniques and tools is not known, the findings shown in Table 8.4 below is strong evidence of supervisors' use of planning techniques and tools in current settings and thus an expression of their acceptance that their techniques and tools of planning are efficacious and thus warrant their continued use:

Table 8.4 Supervisors' use of techniques and tools of planning

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors N=21	0% (0)	0% (0)	67% (14)	33% (7)
Supervisees N=84	0% (0)	0% (0)	71% (60)	29% (24)

The favorable finding shown in Table 8.4 above that supervisors had used techniques and tools of planning, may also be interpreted as the reflection of an effective way whereby the administrative as well as the educative and supportive action of

supervisors had been advanced; furthermore, it might have helped supervisors to add quality to these actions (Kadushin 1992 i : 50-52, 306, and 370).

8.3 Organising

Once the initial, broad-based planning phase is completed, it gives rise to the next logical and basic supervisory function of organising (Botha 1985 : 10). Like planning, it is not static, but is, as Skidmore (1983 : 96) points out, a continual process subject to change. In the supervisory context, this phase focusses on work- and person-oriented aspects since the supervisors and supervisees are directly responsible for the organisation of their separate work tasks by and for themselves.

8.3.1 Steps in the organising process

The organising process includes the structuring of activities and relationships between supervisors and supervisees excluding the responsibility of the procurement of staff, a function normally regarded as that of employing agencies (Wren 1987: 188). The activities and relationships are organised by supervisors and supervisees in the adoption of the following steps:

(1) Setting of preparatory tasks

In accordance with Crow and Odewahn's (1987 : 2), and Schermerhorn's (1984 : 418) views, the supervisors and supervisees acting as participataory managers, accept that their functions are task oriented. They engage in the planning and development of their relationships as a working group, and decide on their direction and how supervisors would exercise their

leadership, evaluative, and controlling roles. These are the components of their task responsibilities that further require that they delineate and resolve problems followed by concrete endeavours towards the completion of those tasks. In accordance with Schermerhorn's (1984 : 418) further suggestions of activities of task performance towards successful goal attainment, the activities are undertaken by supervisors and supervisees commensurate with their respectives roles:

(a) They initiate their activities by setting agenda, offering ideas, defining problems, and recommending solutions. In this way they would be injecting order and discipline in their performance proportionate to their professional capacity.

(b) They add pertinent information to that offered by others in the group of supervisors and supervisees so that all concerned are armed at all times with updated information, a commodity that would positively influence their pursuit of goals and objectives.

(c) They condense information produced through work activities into summary perspectives, so that clarity about the group's tasks may be reached. Excessive detail could detract plans of action from the overal pursuits of goals and objectives.

(d) They elaborate ideas where necessary so that meanings and perspectives may be shared. Over-abstraction in the formulation of ideas could diminish the latters' appeal to others who do not, as a result, grasp the essence of those ideas.

(e) All involved are allowed to express their individual opinions as a means of reasonable evaluation of ideas, suggestions, and proposed solutions to problems.

Realistic apportioning of work tasks and the identification of the particular roles and functions that each member of the team can play are achieved by means of the above organising actions. The resultant organisation of the activities of the team therefore leaves little room for uncertainty or confusion.

The empirical study group of supervisors and supervisees expressed clear indications that supervisors engaged in practice in current supervisory settings were not averse to the setting of tasks for their supervisees. These perceptions are shown in Table 8.5 below.

Table 8.5 The setting of tasks by supervisors

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors **N=21**	0% (0)	0% (0)	86% (18)	14% (3)
Supervisees **N=84**	0% (0)	1% (1)	88% (74)	11% (9)

The findings in Table 8.5 above serve as clear confirmation of the importance that supervisors attach to the act of setting tasks for their supervisees. In current supervisory practice and its leanings towards participatory management between supervisors and supervisees, this act is a joint undertaking involving decision-making by all concerned about what each member should be doing on equal terms. Mutual agreement would thus be expressed about tasks to be undertaken by supervisors and supervisees, their nature, the relevant time-scales for different tasks, and the importance of tasks (Cronje 1986 : 253; Handy 1987 : 107). Cooperation in respect of this action can only lead to the

facilitation and maintenance of good, mutually beneficial working relationships between them.

(2) Allocating work and resources

The objects of the allocating process include tasks and resources. On the basis of Martel's (1981 : 46-47) and Pettes's (1979 : 74-77) perspectives, the following comprise the allocating process involving supervisors and supervisees:

(a) Whereas the allocation of work and resources is the function of supervisors, decisions to allocate specific tasks are appropriately discussed with supervisees who are granted the opportunity to contribute information that might influence decision-making.

(b) Work is assigned to get it done and not for reasons of unfair delegation or an unwillingness to perform. In the supervisory situation, the chances of unfairness and lack of motivation occuring are minimised by the participatory engagement of supervisors and supervisees who continually attempt to prevent these negatives through collective support and honesty.

(c) The total workload of supervisees is realistically and fairly subdivided in their best collective interests as well as those of the recipient clients of the service. This ensures a balanced workload and the prevention of resentment and hostility.

(d) Work is assigned on the basis of supervisees' levels of expertise to ensure satisfactory performance of the tasks at hand.

(e) Supervisees are made to realise that while they are participating in the allocation process, their supervisors are

not abrogating their responsibility to them. In other words, the responsibility for allocation remains with supervisors. Supervisors' and supervisees' involvement in work allocation decisions is a way of enabling them to have responsible and professional participation in deciding what work they are prepared to undertake, and to have an overview of the work of their colleagues.

(f) Supervisors and supervisees see the process of allocating work tasks or resources as an opportunity for free exchange of ideas about what is significant in cases or projects.

(g) Participatory allocation can consume a disproportionate amount of time in relation to a small part of supervisors' and supervisees' total responsibilities. It can also demand more of the supervisors' time. Time spent on allocation processes is therefore tailored to supervisors' and supervisees' needs, and practiced in due proportion to their available time and opportunity for this action.

(h) Supervisors and supervisees always have the opportunity to communicate among themselves any new knowledge that might have a bearing on supervisors' decision whether to allocate.

(i) The process of allocation is viewed as a means of workload management and the avoidance of overloading of workers.

(j) During allocation meetings supervisors and supervisees are consciously aware of the latter's workload so that new work might be allocated only if individual capacity is available.

As far as the provision and allocation of resources are concerned, supervisors have the responsibility to assure the team

that resources needed to do the work are available. These would be in the form of finances, equipment, materials, space, and time. Examples of the latter resources are budgets and operating cash, telephones, stationery, interviewing rooms, and the allotment of realistic time periods for team conferences (Hasenfeld 1979 : 142-150).

The empirical effort to establish the extent to which allocation of work and resources had taken place in the role functioning of supervisors in current supervision produced conclusive evidence that this managerial function was prominent among supervisors. Based on the perceptions of supervisors themselves and those of supervisees, Table 8.6 below portrays this picture.

Table 8.6 The allocation of work and resources by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	86% (18)	14% (3)
Supervisees	0% (0)	2% (2)	73% (61)	25% (21)

The findings in Table 8.6 above reflect the predominant role of supervisors in the allocating process. They also reflect a balanced exercise by supervisors of both the role of allocating work and providing the resources with with supervisees might be able to complete their assigments. According to Kadushin (1985 : 55), the supervisee could contribute meaningfully to this process through joint decision-making with the supervisor rather than simply accepting work and resources as decided upon

by the supervisor. This assumption is motivated by the knowledge, expertise, and managerial opportunity that supervisees would have by virtue of their professional training and background albeit less than that of supervisors.

(3) Establishing worker links

On the basis of the postulations of Follett, Weiner (1982 : 53) suggests that, in fulfilment of informal patterns of behaviour that arise from the social and physical conditions in which workers find themselves in the work situation, the supervisory situation of participatory management allows for the collective responsibility of supervisors and supervisees in lubricating the social relationships that exist between them. Benefits like equal and easy access to physical resources, better communication, transmission of relevant information, and the knowledge of what would be expected of each supervisee are subsequently derived from these relational patterns (Bryson 1990 : 5).

Consistent with Glicken's (1980 : 122) observation, the lubrication of relations is achieved through a conscientious effort to avoid the over-emphasis on the technical aspects of the work at the expense of the personal and interpersonal. Rather, supervisors' and supervisees' efforts involve self-acceptance, a sharing of meaning and valuing in their interpersonal relationships by using communicative skill and knowledge, and expressing central needs. These actions combine as a method of establishing sound interrelationships between supervisors and supervisees.

By declaring their view of the extent to which the establishment of worker relations by supervisors had featured in their situations, supervisors and supervisees clearly revealed a strong acceptance of the value of adequate relations and its associated benefits of group cohesion. Their views are inherent in the scores given in Table 8.7 below.

Table 8.7 The establishment of worker links by supervisors

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	86% (18)	14% (3)
Supervisees	0% (0)	2% (2)	73% (61)	25% (21)

The scores shown in Table 8.7 above also confirmed a strong behavioral bias in the role functioning of the supervisors concerned consistent with current supervisory expectations. They had clearly regarded the establishment of worker links as one of their tasks, although the findings also show that they had not practiced this view to excess. The overall indication is nonetheless that working links were further regarded by supervisors as crucial for the operation of supervisees as a team. This would have a positive effect on the use of participatory modes of practice. Through the participatory mode of management found in current practice, feelings of having a stake in the successes or failures of the team are evenly distributed among supervisors and supervisees (Handy 1987 : 119). The encouragement of worker links would therefore facilitate this distribution.

(4) Coordinating work performance

Adopting the proposals of Follett, Ables and Murphy (1981 : 35), and Parker (1984 : 744), describe the nature of coordination and its overal character in terms of its endurability, and its ability to correlate and smoothen the flow of activities. This description calls for a congruence of workers' activities and compatible interrelationship. On the other hand, Kadushin (1985 : 64, and 1992 i : 62-63), focussing attention on supervisors' coordinating function, stresses that supervisees' activities are coordinated by supervisors on the basis of the reciprocal, supportive, or supplementary nature of those activities. This stance reflects an alignment to the participatory relationship that exists between supervisees in the endeavour to reach organisational objectives.

Under the guidance of their supervisors, supervisees coordinate their work as a means to correlate all factors and activities in their situation, exercise direct contact among themselves, interweave and correlate their activities at the earliest stage possible in their working relationships, and regard the coordination process as a continuing one. The latter actions represent an integrating, synergistic process influenced by the **need** for a coherent linking of all the social services of supervisees to their recipient clients (Cheng 1983 : 156-161; Mason 1984 : 179; Parker 1984 : 744).

Coordination is used as a managerial process involving more than the narrower 'case management' description that

Barker (1987 : 20) and Goldberg et al (1989 : 155-156) ascribe to it. For this purpose, mechanisms such as regular coordinating meetings are set up to process information needed to coordinate tasks. Regarded as the most crucial part of the coordinating process, the managerial task of processing information highlight the importance of the team's skill in communication, and the acquisition, transmission, and management of that information (Tushman and Nadler 1978 : 613).

It has been empirically established that the extent to which the coordination of the work of team members had featured among supervisors in current supervision was high. This high count was achieved on the basis of the responses of supervisors and supervisees, recorded in Table 8.8 below.

Table 8.8 Coordination of work by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	86% (18)	14% (3)
Supervisees	0% (0)	4% (3)	82% (69)	14% (12)

The scores in Table 8.8 above combine to reflect a strong inclination by supervisors to unifying the work of their supervisees through coordination. This coordinating in current supervisory settings is the prerogative of supervisors, who thus exercise much influence over the extent to which coordination actually takes place. It is nonetheless a vertical form of coordination that involve only some degree of

delegation of authority, allocation of tasks, and feedback between supervisors and supervisees (Cronje 1986 : 114).

(5) Monitoring performance

Regarded by Kotter (1982 : 156) as the most important managerial function, the communication and receiving of information by supervisors and supervisees in the monitoring of their work situations indeed form the most important and integral part of their daily functions. Without adequate, relevant information, and without using it appropriately, they cannot exercise their managerial functions in participatory decision-making.

Supervisors depend on supervisees to receive and transmit information. To do so, they monitor the situations in which supervisees operate by consciously seeking and receiving comprehensive, useful information that would initially allow them to develop an in-depth understanding of the supervisees' role and the environment. Direct, face-to-face enquiries as well as indirect, secondary means such as written communication is used to either receive or offer unsolicited information. In this way, supervisors are indeed able to exercise their skill of managing information through their monitoring and disseminating roles, regarded by Falck (1988 : 94) as the broadest of all the roels expected of managers, and by Mintberg (1973 , cited by Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 5) as fundamental managerial roles.

Similarly, supervisees receive and use information in monitoring their direct work situations with clients. This information is thus consciously used to develop in-depth understanding of their client situations. In turn, such information is shared with supervisors in contact with them.

As was found in the case of the other forms of the supervisors' organising function, practising supervisors and supervisees once again validated the above claim that the monitoring function of supervisors featured well in their supervisory settings. The weight of their responses is represented by the scores given in Table 8.9 below.

Table 8.9 Monitoring of work by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	86% (18)	14% (3)
Supervisees	0% (0)	2% (2)	74% (62)	24% (20)

The scores in Table 8.9 above showed that the predominant number of supervisors were not excessively engaged in the monitoring function of supervision. Clearly, this measured practice reflects well on the supervisors' acceptance of the professional status of their supervisees who would therefore not be stifled by over zealous monitoring. However, the monitor of the work of supervisees by supervisors through the collection of appropriate and sufficient information remains a fundamental function of the supervisory role (Kadushin 1992 i : 60).

8.3.2 Socialisation and orientation

When new supervisors or supervisees enter an organisation they might have anxieties about their ability to perform in their respective jobs or conform to norms; they might feel inadequate in comparison with the receiving staff; and, they might show concern about whether they would be able to relate to receiving staff. These reactions would therefore necessitate an organising action or socialisation process in which they are given appropriate information relating to their specific jobs and which would be needed to allay anxieties and reduce uncertainty (Griffin 1993 : 429; Stoner and Freeman 1989 : 344).

In cases where the above states of anxiety and uncertainty are encountered, the first action by receiving staff is crucial in reducing anxieties and uncertainty especially in appointees entering their first assignments. Such action consist of the contemporary management approach of a worker/person orientation in accordance with the current leanings towards a human relations perspective in general management practice. However, in conformity with Kadushin's (1985 : 51 and 1992 i : 48-50) caution, induction and orientation is a gradual one so that new recruits are not overwhelmed with too much information and exposure to the organisation on their first day.

Follow-up information is focussed on the characteristics of the work situation, including motivational mechanisms such as reward systems. Other information include organisational expectations and its history, mission, structure, and functions; the daily

work routine; how the appointees' work would contribute to the organisation's mission; and, a full description of how appointees are expected to integrate in the participatory management approach in supervision. However, this informing of the recruit is done through supervisory educational sessions rather than formal instructional schooling in the workings of the organisation and the expectations of the job (Handy 1987:143).

In particular, appointees are made clear on the role of authority and its limits as it would apply to them and others already with the organisation. Clarity on these aspects of the job is meant to allay their anxiety about their apparent lack of capacity to cope with problems to be encountered in practice (Munson 1983 : 119).

It was evident in the empirical exercise that orientation of new supervisees by supervisors was highly regarded. The scores given in Table 8.10 below are a reflection of that regard.

Table 8.10 Orientation of recruits by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	5% (1)	86% (18)	9% (2)
Supervisees	0% (0)	4% (3)	66% (55)	30% (26)

The scores in Table 8.10 validate the theoretical contention that supervisors have the responsibility of orientating recruits (supervisees) to whom they would be accountable. The scores also

indicate that the predominant number of supervisors concerned were not engaged in the orientation of recruits at all times, a finding that seems realistic in view of the fact that recruits are not appointed at all times. However, whenever recruits are appointed, it remains the responsibility of supervisors to ensure that the recruits receive ongoing induction and opportunity for socialisation with existing staff (Kadushin 1992 i : 48-50).

8.3.3 Conflict management

Crow and Odewahn (1987 : 144), and Handy (1987 : 251), contend that it is not always possible to create working conditions without individuals having difficulty in complying with organisational dictates, and having relationship difficulties as a result. Situations like these could cause conflict between staff and the organisation, or among staff themselves.

Similarly, differences in values and perception, and difficulty in applying participatory management modes of operation in supervision, could result in conflict that may place further demands on supervisors' and supervisees' coping capacity. Consistent with the view of Rahim (1985 : 83), such conflict should be properly managed so that problems could be resolved effectively, especially through the use of fresh and innovative means.

Various methods of managing conflict proposed by the literature, consistently overlap. In current supervision, an adaptation of

the contibutions of Crow and Odewahn (1987 : 145-147), Delbecq and Mills (1985 : 25-34), Handy (1987 : 252-254), Schwenk (1984 : 153-168), Tjosvold (1984 : 21), encompassed in the following methods of reduction, stimulation, and resolution, is predominantly used as follows:

(a) **Conflict reduction.** Whether the conflict occurs between supervisors and supervisees, or among supervisees only, supervisors divert attention away from the dissension by sharing experiences of good cooperation among them. This approach does not guarantee a resolution of the conflict but serves as a way of managing it. Favorable information is provided about those involved, avoiding negatives and weaknesses; a continuing colleague/person socialisation and orientation is adopted; and, the supervisors are allowed to act as arbitrators. They would thus encourage those involved in the conflict to compromise and agree to accept their decisions.

(b) **Conflict stimulation.** Mediocre performance by supervisors or supervisees could be the result of a low level of conflict. When the latter occurs, the conflict is stimulated and heightened through conscious means. For example, the following practices are adopted towards that end:

(i) The supervisors openly state that some degree of conflict is desireable. Team members consequently propose disagreements they might otherwise have suppressed. However, rules of conflict govern the expression of such disagreements. These rules stipulate that members have due respect for each other, that the ultimate aim is to clear up differences through resolution or

compromise, and that conflict be maintained at functional levels.

(ii) Stimulation of conflict is also achieved by engaging members from other organisational groups in the routine functions of the supervisors and supervisees. The guest participants' different backgrounds, values, and style of management might succeed in revitalising a stagnant, unstimulating working atmosphere. In the process, sedentary workers whose lack of active participation in the operations of the work team may have contributed to the level of conflict, are challenged towards active participation by the guest participants' different characteristics.

(iii) In situations where supervisors' leadership roles are a source of conflict, a redistribution of the power and authority is exercised by shifting the leadership role to another worker who might present more favorably. This strategy may stimulate easier expression of disagreements among the rest of the workers.

(iv) The encouragement of competition among workers can lead to a stimulation of conflict. Offers such as pay incentives, bonuses, or citations for extraordinary performance would foster a competitive spirit among the team who would consciously set out to excel in productive conflict.

(v) Workers may be driven to change a previously over-directive supervisor who had stifled members' participation in the expression of differing viewpoints,

a situation that might further have resulted in a passive, lethargic work atmosphere. A renewed, effective leadership style by the supervisor in which opposing viewpoints are continually allowed and encouraged leads to the healthy growth of workers through a creative handling of the conflict that it would generate. It also reduces levels of lethargy.

(c) **Conflict resolution.** Other than attempting to reduce or stimulate conflict, supervisors and supervisees opt for a resolution of conflict through a compromising attitude. They thereby express a willingness to sacrifice some objectives in order to gain others. Decisions that follow from this method of handling conflict are likely to leave them satisfied and accepting of each other.

Another form of resolving conflict is **integrative problem-solving**. The latter converts the resolution of conflict into a joint problem-solving method instead of individuals suppressing it or reaching compromises (Schwenk 1984 : 155). Integrative solutions result from the process of giving supervisors and supervisees the feeling that they are working together for a common goal, encouraging a free flow of ideas, and stressing the advantages of agreeing on the optimum solution to their conflict. The resultant consensus would obviate the attainment of a victory by any of the conflicting members. As cautioned by Schwenk (1984 : 155), however, premature consensus is avoided; hasty, instant decisions could help terminate conflict too speedily thereby obviating the identification of the best solution.

Irrespective of the nature of the conflict or the method by which it is managed, it adds to the development of group cohesion and stronger ties among supervisors and supervisees. The attainment of cohesion, solid links among supervisors and supervisees, and continuing harmony, are paramount for the prevention of a recurrence of conflict and disarray.

In the practice setting, it was established that supervisors and supervisees did not see any difference in managing and resolving conflict. This finding and the supervisors' and supervisees' perceptions of the extent to which conflict is handled by supervisors are reflected in the identical scores obtained for both forms of handling conflict, given in Table 8.11 below.

Table 8.11 The resolution and management of conflict by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors (s)
N=84 Supervisees (sw)

	Never		Seldom		Frequently		At all times	
	s	sw	s	sw	s	sw	s	sw
Resolving conflict	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	73% (61)	24% (5)	27% (23)	76% (16)	0% (0)
Managing conflict	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	73% (61)	24% (5)	27% (23)	76% (16)	0% (0)

Whereas supervisors saw themselves as fulfilling the responsibility of managing or resolving conflict as a matter of routine, the findings in Table 8.11 above are also sound evidence that the majority of supervisees did not share this view. This is predominantly expressed by the finding that they had considered their own supervisors as inadequately engaged in either the resolution or management of conflict. The cause or

causes for these different perceptions are not known. Whereas it was clear that supervisees had expected more from their supervisors in respect of the resolution or managing of conflict, supervisees might have reacted to the **avoidance** of conflict by their supervisors especially in situations wherein the conflict had arisen in their interrelationships (Kadushin 1992 i : 186).

8.4 Summary

Planning and organising were discussed and evaluated in this chapter as the first two of six components of the operationalisation of participatory management. They were described as vital processes that have the potential of affecting each other as well as the succeeding four processes of leading, controlling, educating, and supporting. Planning and organising were therefore treated as lying at the basis of all the latter processes, as well as having an enduring, ongoing link to them.

The illustrations and aids included in the evaluation were those that highlighted the efficacy of planning and organising as managerial techniques. Some of the illustrations and aids included in the evaluation are those that supervisors and supervisees use in their planning and organising exercises.

Planning featured a composite of systematic steps in the use of goals, objectives, knowledge of the work situation, and different forms of planning. Its distinctive techniques included the use of time-frames and scheduling, programme designing and projecting, and technical aids to monitor plan implementation.

The organising process included task setting, work assignment, interrelationships, work coordination, the monitor of work, orientation or socialising of recruits, and the management of conflict. Each of these components were evaluated as integral to the organising function of supervisors and supervisees engaged in participatory modes of management in supervision.

The subsequent processes of leading and controlling are handled in the next chapter in a manner similar to the way planning and organising has been in this chapter. They are also to be viewed as logically following on the latter processes.

CHAPTER 9

LEADING AND CONTROLLING IN THE OPERATIONALISATION OF PARTICIPATORY MANAGEMENT

9.1 Introduction

In this chapter, leading and controlling are discussed as the second pair of interlinking managerial processes, the one having a bearing on, and being influenced by, the other. They are also treated as having the potential to affect, and be affected by, the other four processes of planning, organising, educating, and supporting.

The evaluative discussion covers a broad outlay of the processes of leading and controlling each with its own particular characteristics and nature. These will include conceptual, structural, procedural, motivational, and social aspects. For each aspect, illustrations drawn from empirical exercises and hypothetical situations are used to clarify the supervisors' leadership and controlling roles when applied through participatory management in supervision.

Leading and controlling in their present context are regarded as 'processes' as well as 'steps'. On the one hand, they are ubiquitous throughout management processes without being bounded by time and territorial constraints; on the other, they could be implemented as steps within such constraints.

9.2 Leading

A survey of the theory and research on leadership suggests that in its simplest form, leader behavior by managers has primarily to do with convincing and activating others to carry out tasks. This is consistent with Ables and Murphy's (1981 : 16) normative approach to leadership. However, in more specific terms, Bargal and Schmid (1989 : 40047), House and Baetz (1979 : 345-407), and Imundo (1980 : 104-105) are unanimous that leadership by managers has to do with the initiating of structure, managing sanctions on various actions undertaken, supportive action, and encouraging participation by all connected to tasks on hand. Together with the other actions mentioned here, the reference to participation alludes to a collective undertaking that excludes independent functioning by managers in leadership capacities.

Rather than use the traditional approach of social influence and mechanical behavioral processes like the leader imposing on the perceptions of his follower, supervisors in the capacity of leaders and operating within the parameters of the participatory management environment of supervision use a contingency or situational form of leadership, one that takes the working situation of supervisees into full consideration. This situational style requires that various work situations call for adapted leadership styles. The latter would also be more reciprocal between the supervisor leader and his followers (Handy 1987 : 103; Vroom, cited by Handy 1987 : 102; Weiner 1990 : 98).

Supervisors use their own leadership genius in interacting their style with favorable situational conditions; inducing, or, in the terminology of Botha (1985 : 13) and Cronje (1986 : 101), 'activating' their supervisees to aim for the achievement of goals that reflect both their needs, wants, aspirations, and expectations; maintaining good relations with their supervisees; helping them to have clarity of task structure; and, using their positionary power judiciously and without causing undue stress to their supervisees. In this way, they fulfil the holistic, comprehensive ideals of participatory management. These are reflected in the leading process comprising relevant sub-processes (Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 74; Fiedler 1967, cited by Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 74; Tannenbaum and Schmidt 1973, cited by Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 78).

9.2.1 The leading process

In order for supervisors to initiate and maintain a responsible leadership process, they are expected to be continually aware of their supervisees' characteristics and motivations, and of the organisational conditions under which they operate. Their awarenes derive from knowledge about their supervisees' backgrounds, values, experience, as well as the freedoms and constraints presented by the organisations wherein they operate (Durst 1988 : 75; Tannenbaum and Schmidt 1973 : 162-164).

In situations where the supervisees' average rate of experience and levels of knowledge and skills is small, and consistent with Holloway and Brager's (1989 : 143), and

House and Mitchell's (1979 : 81-97) suggestions, supervisors try to ensure that their supervisees maintain a favorable adherence to clear, focussed direction at all times, that a manageable group composition is created that fosters competent work, and that expert process assistance is rendered. However, supervisors avoid undue authority and autocracy, so that their style is more participatory and tempered with consultation with supervisees, soliciting their suggestions, and giving due and serious regard to these suggestions before making decisions. In this way they would have a moderating effect on both the supervisees and the organisation (Glisson 1989 : 114).

(1) Clarifying vision

Supervisors are perceived as having the function of creating vision for supervisees operating in the participatory management context. Vision is the mental picture of the future desired state, clearly described and understood, bounded by realistic, credible limits of the community for whose help supervisees are assigned (Bennis and Nanus 1985 : 89).

Vision is thus a shared vision between supervisors and supervisees, one that helps strengthen their belief that desired outcomes **can be achieved** through their individual and collective efforts. Implicit in the latter is the importance of participation, trust, a connectedness with each other, and feelings of cooperation. In turn, supervisees are encouraged to contribute when they sense that none would be belittled or ignored and that they are able to function in an atmosphere of

nondefensiveness and openness. Sharing in the context of the leading process would imply, therefore, that supervisees are allowed open expression of vision coupled with ideas and without the presence of institutional or heirarchical limits to impede them (Plant 1987 : 58; Senge 1992 : 230).

The clarification of vision through supervisory leadership is strongly reflected in the scores in Table 9.1. This is viewed as conclusive validation of the envisioning function of supervisors in their leadership capacity.

Table 9.1 The clarification of vision by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	10% (2)	0% (0)	67% (14)	23% (5)
Supervisees	0% (0)	0% (0)	79% (66)	21% (18)

The findings in Table 9.1 above are also clear evidence that supervisors were not excessive in the act of clarifying vision to their supervisees. This vision would be linked to, or be implicit in, the mission of the employing agency of the supervisor and supervisees (Kadushin 1992 i : 494). The controlled extent to which supervisors had fulfilled the role of clarification of the vision to supervisees denotes a measured approach to this leadership act, and that the supervisory function in this regard was a moderate one in helping supervisees link strategy implementation with performance (Nahavandi and Malekzadeh 1993 : 419).

(2) Clarifying contingency factors

A second act of leadership function is that of clarifying the requirements of supervisees' tasks, the policies and culture of the organisation, and the expectations of the roles of supervisors and supervisees. According to Glisson (1981 : 16) these elements would be the system of interrelated components that would make up the operational environment of any work situation.

The work situations of supervisors and supervisees would be in constant flux and ever-changing. This form of instability requires that supervisors' leadership and supervisees response to it are accordingly varied and adapted. In turn, the situation and its changes have a bearing on the leadership, and vice-versa (Fiedler et al 1976 : 184; Follett, cited by Weiner 1990 : 98; Handy 1987 : 108).

In the process of clarifying contingency factors, supervisors and supervisees avoid a rigid application of only one form of leadership. This is analogous with Hersey and Blanchard's (1988, cited by Weiner 1990 : 123) interpretation of the contingency type of leadership whereby it is contended that there is no one best way of leading others. In other words, supervisors are aware of situational factors, adopting realistic flexibility in leadership to match varying situations, and regarding leadership as an art that demands strong creativity. They thus assume a tentative stance by testing different ways in different situations. They would thereby discover the 'best fit' and most

acceptable form of leadership (Handy 1987 : 103-108; Weiner 1990 : 98; Wren 1987 : 386).

This initial action is followed by an adapted leadership style based on a clear recognition of factors contingent on the leadership role. The subsequent explanation, clarification, and persuasion for the acceptance of contingency influences on both the supervisors' leadership role and that of supervisees, though difficult, is therefore realistic and feasible (Pollard 1978 : 140).

Strong evidence was empirically established of the leadership function of clarifying contingency factors in current supervisory settings. This evidence is reflected in Table 9.2 below, and is based on the perceptions of supervisors and supervisees.

Table 9.2 The clarification of contingency factors by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	100% (21)	0% (0)
Supervisees	0% (0)	14% (12)	74% (62)	12% (10)

The scores in Table 9.2 above reflect a clear difference in the extent to which supervisors viewed their own leadership role in respect of the clarification of contingency factors in the work situation, and how this leadership role was seen by supervisees in respect of their own supervisors. The predominant counts in

the 'frequently' category is nevertheless indicative of a healthy recognition of the importance of this leadership function (Kadushin 1992 i : 104).

(3) Establishing relations

Supervisors' leadership role in facilitating the establishment of working relations among supervisees, and between themselves and supervisees, is focussed on the attainment of benefits for all concerned. Consistent with two dimensions of leadership proposed by Burns (1978 : 19-20), and the perspectives of Crow and Odewahn (1987 : 216), supervisors firstly encourage intra-team relationships through transactional initiatives. This approach involves contact among supervisors and supervisees in order to facilitate exchanges that are psychological in nature. For example, supervisors and supervisees would accept each other as persons, each having a purpose and meaningful position within the organisation, and accepting that their respective positions are related in an equally meaningful way.

Transactional approaches are an exchange type based on a contractual understanding between supervisors and supervisees. If they do not accept each other's positions, purpose, and interrelatedness, contrary to supervisors' own exhortations, their need to advise, direct, and guide supervisees would not be met. It is thus incumbent on supervisors to establish satisfactory relationships between themselves or among supervisees so that they may use the bargaining process of give-and-take for the benefit of all concerned.

Secondly, leadership of a transformational kind is elicited. Supervisors engage their supervisees so that all involved might raise their levels of motivation. This type of leadership leads to a fusion of the different purposes of supervisors and supervisees. In the case of both these dimensions of leadership, it is evident that their use would be dependent on the establishment and maintenance of sound interrelationships. Unless

supervisors are able to facilitate good colleague-collaborator relationships, it is unlikely that the desired outcomes associated with transactional and transformational leadership would be achieved (Hart 1982 : 13).

Empirical evidence drawn from the participation of supervisors and supervisees, and given in Table 9.3 below, suggest that, as leaders, supervisors were indeed well engaged in the establishment of intra-team relations in their supervisor-supervisee situations.

Table 9.3 The establishment of intra-team relations by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	67% (14)	33% (7)
Supervisees	0% (0)	11% (9)	68% (57)	21% (18)

The scores in Table 9.3 above clearly reflect the measured way in which supervisors exercised the leadership role of establishing inter-team relations. This reflects the probability that the team had sufficiently sound relations which obviated the

need for continuous intervention by supervisors. More importantly, however, these findings are a reflection of the value that supervisors had attached to this leadership function, a positive perception that could rub off on supervisees in the supervisory relationship (Kadushin 1992 i : 141).

(4) Formulating a path-goal strategy

According to Griffin (1993 : 403-404) and Stoner and Freeman (1989 : glossary, 4) the path-goal model of leadership may be broadly defined as one which emphasises leaders' role in clarifying to their followers how they can achieve high performance and its associated rewards. This definition calls for

a strategy, viewed by Weiner (1990 : 202) as the determination of specific long-term goals and objectives, to be followed by '...the adoption of courses of action and allocation of resources to best achieve these goals'. However, the outcome of rewards or other consequences which would have on an impact on the motivation of those who have to aspire to the achievement of goals and objectives, is not circumscribed. Supervisors and supervisees generally adopt the essence of these definitions in their supervisory practice. Supervisors clarify to their supervisees how they can achieve high performance in applying participatory methods of managing their work, and the consequence of extrinsic or intrinsic rewards. That is, promotions and pay, security, respect, professional gratification, and wider societal support of their professional work (Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 55).

These actions serve to activate supervisees to contribute to their collective success. When they become au fait with the goals that had been set for themselves, and become aware of the rewards that might be expected from proceeding towards, and achieving, those goals, the formulation of their path-goal strategy is expedited (House and Mitchell 1979 : 81-96).

Supervisors were empirically found to have indulged very extensively in the formulation of path-goal strategies. Corresponding with the above literature, this action was part of the leadership function in current supervisory settings. The empirical findings are given in the form of the data in Table 9.4 below.

Table 9.4 The formulation of path-goal strategy by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	86% (18)	14% (3)
Supervisees	0% (0)	7% (6)	71% (60)	22% (18)

The findings in Table 9.4 above reflect that supervisees predominantly perceived the performance of their supervisors in the same way that supervisors perceived their own. The scores also represent as clear evidence that it was not necessary for supervisors to formulate path-goal strategies as a continuous function. Given the participatory management mode used in

supervision, supervisors and supervisees instead concur frequently on the desired course to take in pursuit of set goals. This approach contributes to the consolidation of the participatory relationship between them and thus lends to the maintenance of working relationships of understanding and professional respect.

(5) Activating workers

Supervisors are required to have well-developed interpersonal and activational skills, and to continually hone their leadership skill of activating their supervisees. Qualities such as charisma, vision, energy, and the ability to build the bonds of cooperation around the task or purpose of their role as supervisors (otherwise known as transformational skills), are included in training programmes that might be available to hone their activating into a more specialised skill (Crow and Odewahn 1987:53; Handy 1987 : 104).

Once their leadership skills have been developed, supervisors exercise specific actions in order to effectively activate their supervisees. In this regard, the ideas of Bass (1985 : 26-31); Boyd (1987 : 35-43), Burns (1978: 19-20), and Crow and Odewahn (1987 : 11-12) contain a similar thread of thought overlapping in several respects, and which are appropriately adapted in current supervisory practice as follows:

(a) Supervisors encourage their teams to motivate themselves to do more than they had originally anticipated. This implies that they encourage their supervisees to be flexible in their approach

to the tasks on hand, and develop a conducive makeup for change and increased responsibility;

(b) Supervisors continually raise their supervisees' sense of value and the importance of their task roles. In this way the levels of motivation of their supervisees would be advanced and thus add positively to the achievement of organisational goals;

(c) Supervisors encourage their supervisees to transcend their own self interests for the benefit of their collective mission as well as the organisation's. However, this does not mean that supervisees discard their interests. On the contrary, they are encouraged to try and meld their own with the collective interests in a balanced, non-sacrificial manner.

(d) Supervisors help their supervisees to reach self-actualisation through the raising of their need levels. Assistance in this regard might further lead to greater motivation, satisfaction, and commitment;

(e) Supervisors use skills of anticipation in showing foresight into the continual changes of the working environment. Their supervisees thereby develop states of confidence and trust in their ability to be flexible in their perception and judgement of situations.

(f) Supervisors try to exude self-confidence in their actions and a strong conviction in their own beliefs so that they might capture their supervisees' commitment and energy. The expression of this professional quality can only lead to a more determined and participative pursuit of goals and objectives;

(g) Supervisors attempt to be realistic in their expectations, and avoid the creation of an image of success and competence

which, in real terms, might be hard to attain despite all the well intended and collective efforts of themselves and supervisees. This practice ensures a collective acceptance of situations as they are, and not as they would like to perceive them;

The established extent to which supervisors activated their supervisees in practice can be accepted as significant evidence of their satisfactory leadership functioning. This conclusion is drawn from the data contained in Table 9.5 below.

Table 9.5 Motivation of supervisees

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	86% (18)	14% (3)
Supervisees	0% (0)	14% (12)	64% (54)	22% (18)

The findings shown in Table 9.5 above is a sound indication of the positive extent to which supervisors exercised their basic leadership function of motivating their supervisees (Kadushin 1992 i : 185-185, and 301). This motivation can only be to the benefit of both the supervisory relationship by lubricating it, and the quality of service rendered by supervisees.

(6) Decision-making and problem-solving

Supervisors assume a particular role in the process of collective problem-solving among supervisees. This role takes effect from the outset, when supervisors and supervisees collectively engage in the planning phase of their work, one which involves the

initial decision-making activity from which will issue ideas, and whereby their participatory problem-solving ability in the choice between alternatives will be gauged (Ables and Murphy 1981 : 106; Herman 1991 : 25; Skidmore 1983 : 57; Tropman 1984 : 50-51; Vandervelde 1979 : 75; Weiner 1990 : 99).

It is the supervisors' role to appropriately help supervisees to choose decision-making methods that would facilitate problem-solving processes appropriately matched to problem characteristics. This approach implies that the consultative or participatory decision-making method is always applicable. In situations wherein it is agreed that supervisees would make final decisions in respect of their own workloads, supervisees concerned base their decision-making on the findings of their consultations with supervisors who would have offered information, advice, or opinions towards their decisions (Schermerhorn 1984 : 323; Vroom 1984 : 18-36).

Supervisors assist their supervisees to maintain the typically consensual, participatory form of decision-making. Supervisors ensure the perpetuation of the cooperative intent reflected in the participatory mechanism of their decision-making, of the broad dissemination of information through it, and the sharing of values. It is therefore apparent that the success of supervisors and supervisees as a team is largely influenced by the extent to which supervisors are able to achieve and encourage facilitating working relations among themselves (Ouchi 1981 : 78).

In practice, supervisors seemed to participate very extensively in the leadership role of making decisions and solving problems in respect of their supervisees. This conclusion is based on the responses of supervisors and supervisees, summarised in the scores included in Table 9.6 below.

Table 9.6 Decision-making and problem-solving by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	86% (18)	14% (3)
Supervisees	0% (0)	2% (2)	87% (73)	11% (9)

As leaders, supervisors evidently practiced decision-making and problem-solving as shown in Table 9.6 above. Herman (1991 : 25) sees involvement in decision-making processes as a 'deep' form of participation. It may thus be concluded that the overwhelming frequency with which decision-making had taken place within the participatory management mode of current supervision is an indication that the chances of improving their management skills and thus their professional development in the situations concerned were indeed good (Cronje 1986: 226; Griffin 1993:272). Kadushin (1992 i : 337) sees this as a good practice of supervision, and would facilitate the problem-solving processes.

9.2.2 Self-leading

Implicit in the above discussion of the leadership functions of supervisors is the assumption that their supervisees are amenable to being led. Alternatively, however, some supervisees might be

acceptably capable of motivating themselves to perform tasks without the activating role of supervisors and irrespective of whether such tasks are naturally rewarding, necessary, or unappealing.

When supervisors are confident about their supervisees' capability to self-lead, they allow self-leaders professional freedom, or adopt a democratic style of leadership (Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 11-12; Manz and Sims 1987 : 106-107). This enactment of self-motivational ability therefore require a flexible form of leadership, one that is able to adapt to situations wherein the levels of competency of supervisees vary. Corresponding with Austin's (1981 : 57), Cummings' (1978 : 625) , and Woodcock and Francis's (1982 : 4-7) analyses of self-leadership, effective supervisees capable of self-leading display professional ability for optimal use of their skills, energy, and time; to determine methods of work; to set task schedules; feedback about their individual and collective performance; show a high self-esteem; have a sense of achievement; express feelings of personal worth; and, have cohesion with other supervisees. Added to this range of capabilities, their capabilities are further consistent with Manz and Sims' (1987 : 120) elaboration according to which self-leading supervisees are capable of self-reinforcement, self-evaluation, self-criticism, self-valuation and enactment of their own expectations, reaching their own goals alongside those of the organisation.

There are also socio-recreational manifestations of self-leading that bring relieve to work situations. As Woodcock and Francis (1982 : 4-7) purport, self-leading supervisees could indulge in healthy relaxation and meaningful use of their free time, a practice that would help curb burnout caused by work stress.

In the practice setting, much evidence of the inclination to self-leading was identified on the strength of the reactions of supervisors and supervisees. It was found that supervisors had allowed self-leading to a considerable extent in their current supervisory situations. In Table 9.7 below this finding is reflected in the responses by both supervisors and supervisees.

Table 9.7 Self-leading by supervisees

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	10% (2)	85% (18)	5% (1)
Supervisees	0% (0)	14% (12)	69% (58)	17% (14)

It may be concluded from the scores in Table 9.7 above that despite the supervisors' adherence to those other direct leadership actions discussed earlier, the predominant number of them were nevertheless prepared to allow their supervisees ample scope to act independently and on the basis of the many manifestations and benefits of self-leading. Supervisees engaged in a team setting on a joint project basis might find self-leading as an opportunity for self-direction and self-management of their work, one that would further allow them the benefit of

learning new skills in taking on more responsibility and gaining extra responsibility (Hicks and Bone 1995 : 11 and 118; Kadushin 1992 i : 140).

9.3 Controlling

Once the actions of supervisees have been stimulated or activated through the process of leading, they ensure that their planned actions achieve set goals. This is achieved by means of a process of controlling involving the monitoring and guaging of the degree of success attained in achieving goals, correcting flaws or discrepancies, and thereby maintaining a clear link between the planning and controlling phases of their professional tasks (Churchill 1984 : 152).

9.3.1 The controlling process

The controlling process comprises 5 interlinking sub-processes discussed in the ensuing sub-sections. These sub-processes are in the nature of actions that entail structural, quantitative, methodological, evaluative, and corrective considerations.

The effectiveness of the entire controlling process rests on the degree of clarity held by both supervisors and supervisees about their individual positions in relation to each other, and how their relationships are processually articulated as a form of control. The latter is seen as grounded in concepts reminiscent of Follett's behavioral and holistic system of control, whereby dispensation of the roles and functions of supervisors and

supervisees are closely linked and interdependent, each having close, functional proximity with the other (Parker 1984: 742). To illustrate this stance, a hypothetical situation is depicted in Fig 9.1 below portraying the relationship between a supervisor and supervisees operating according to the participatory management mode of current supervisory practice. In Fig 9.1, the supervisor (S) has some measure of control over 5 supervisees (S-W) each of whom enjoy considerable self-control; there is nonetheless power-sharing control (P) and intergrative /interactive control among the supervisees and supervisor (I); these various forms of control further combine to form a system of group control (G). The group functions within the wider organisational or environmental context (E). The situation thus depicted reflect processually-articulated forms of control rather than a positional arrangement between supervisor and supervisees.

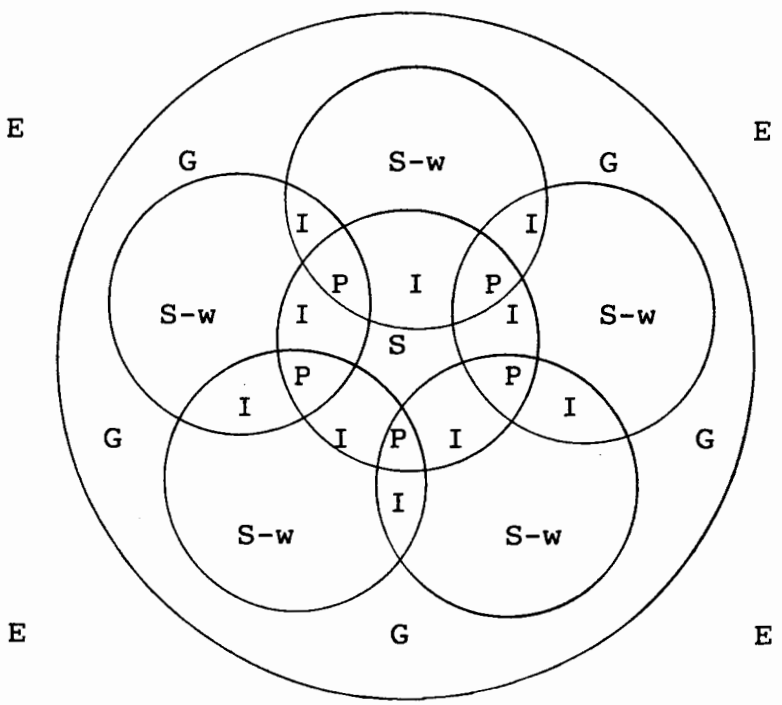

Fig 9.1 The processually-articulated forms of control in the participatory management context

Reflected in Figure 9.1 above are other significant functional-dynamic characteristics of the forms of control associated with the participatory mode of management, namely:

(a) A constant- and multi-connectedness among the supervisor and supervisees on the basis of function and positional seniority;

(b) A variation in the extent or amount of control assumed by the supervisor over supervisees. That is, self-leading is highest under the broader influence of group control, whereas power-sharing and intergrative/interactive control are least though involving all concerned.

The execution of the forms of control in this hypothetical situation can only be practicable if the supervisor and supervisees apply those controls as a unit. There is a strong likelihood that they would revert to the supervisor-over-supervisee dichotomy of control should there be dissension about the participatory roles of supervisor and supervisees.

In conformity with the postulations of writers like Manz (1986 : 586-593) and Mockler (1972 : 2), and by adopting a logical, step-by-step sequence of suggested actions in the controlling process, supervisors and supervisees find their task of working together eased through the adoption of the following steps. It is stressed, however, that the sequence of actions would be subject to variations in conditions and events under which it is applied, or one or more of the actions might require repetition or review out of sequence. A step-by-step sequence of actions in the controlling process is therefore flexible, timely, and

cost-effective in order to allow for changes and adaptations to it (Robbins 1980 : 384).

(1) Setting structural criteria

The structure of control systems for the general workplace proposed by writers such as Lorange and Murphy (1984 : 27-35), and Markus and Pfeffer (1983 : 205-218), make reference to aspects of frugal costs, correct timing, the practical use of quality and objective information, the realisation of the relatedness of the system of control to the wider organisational system, and flexibility in the nature of their components. In the participatory management context of supervision these considerations also apply, as well as the capacity of such systems to create what Weiner (1990 : 92) calls a homeostatic state of dynamic equilibrium. By this is meant the process of control that would help supervisors and supervisees to attain goals by adapting and adjusting to changes in the direction of new stability for each worker. Supervisors and supervisees therefore use systems of control in the following manner:

(a) Make improvements or adjustments to work processes through the speedy collection, routing, and evaluation of information needed for such improvements and adjustments;

(b) Evaluate information for its accuracy so that resultant action can correct problems of professional activity instead of creating new ones;

(c) Act on information contained in systems of control that is free of personal, subjective aspirations of either supervisors or supervisees;

(d) Focus appropriately on areas of their performance where deviations and problems are most likely to occur, like the fair and equitable distribution of funds among various projects;

(e) Adapt to changes in the team's professional thinking and missions by assuming a flexible character;

(f) Exploit the capacity of the systems as corrective mechanisms, which have built-in solutions in the form of practical guidelines for corrective action vis-a-vis vague, conceptual frameworks with which to address problematic situations.

Empirically verified evidence clearly indicate supervisors' self-declared leading role in structuring systems of control for their supervisees in current supervisory settings. In this way, they set criteria for those structures destined to be used in the management of their supervisees' work. This evidence is shown in Table 9.8 below.

Table 9.8 The setting of criteria for management structures by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	19% (4)	67% (14)	14% (3)
Supervisees	0% (0)	8% (7)	71% (59)	21% (18)

Although the structures alluded to in Table 9.8 do not specify their precise nature, the data obtained nonetheless represent a clear picture of the predominance of this supervisory function.

The element of participation would of necessity govern the process of setting criteria for management structures, assigning the responsibility for this process to supervisors yet engaging the open involvement of supervisees for their acceptance and mutual professional benefit once the structures are used. In the case of both supervisors and supervisees, this activity is to be regarded as one of the basic management skills required of them (Kadushin 1992 i : 297).

(2) Establishing minimum output-outcome standards

Supervisors and supervisees routinely decide on alternative behaviors based on their expectation that a given behavior will lead to a desired outcome or effect. They also establish minimum standards by which the outcomes or effects of their respective actions as supervisors and supervisees are to be controlled and achieved.

As a first step, a translation of their goals is undertaken. The resultant, measureable indicators of success are intended for all their expected and unexpected outcomes and effects in relation to the performance milestones and effectiveness criteria that they would have set (Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 12; Nadler and Lawler III 1977 : 27; Weiner 1990 : 255).

Such standards are not, however, so tightly controlled that they jeopardise the degree of autonomy, independence, and innovation by supervisees. For example, supervisees would not be expected to conduct individual interviews with private donors in the space

of 4 weeks while at the same time having to raise R5000 for emergency relief for flood victims. Similarly, the expectation that supervisees in a team unit should carry caseloads of no less than 20 cases of which 40% should be longterm and 60% should be time-limited, would be avoided since it might hamper them in their desire to use creative group work vis-a-vis casework techniques in response to the problems presented by clients (Peters and Waterman 1982 : 15-16; 319-325).

A way of avoiding the creation of rigidly controlled standards is the setting of flexible output-outcome standards as part of a systematic effort to establish performance targets that are at once realistic, concrete, achievable, well recorded, and understood by all. Those standards have the added capacity to encourage the creation of task interdependence in an interactive relationship among supervisors and supervisees, give rise to a resultant sense of potency in the collective belief that they can be effective, and create the realisation that they would be governed by an outcome interdependence whereby the work they do would have consequences felt by them all (Locke and Latham 1984 : 21-25; Mockler 1972 : 2; Peters and Waterman 1982 : 57-59; Shea and Guzzo 1987: 323-356).

In answer to the question about the degree to which the controlling function is exercised by supervisors in current supervision, both supervisors themselves and the supervisors of participating supervisees were empirically found to have

fulfilled the function of setting output-outcome standards to a favorable extent. Their responses are given in Table 9.9 below.

Table 9.9 The setting of output-outcome standards by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	100% (0)	0% (0)
Supervisees	0% (0)	0% (0)	79% (66)	21% (18)

Clearly, the data in Table 9.9 above validates the contention that supervisors are predominantly engaged in the controlling function of setting output-outcome standards with the appropriate involvement of supervisees in fulfilment of the participatory management practice associated with current supervision. It is also significant to note that this involvement was done by all supervisors in a measured fashion, whereas a significant number of the supervisees experienced this activity at all times. In both instances it may be assumed that this activity would ensure good performance levels (Kadushin 1992 i : 357, 387).

(3) Designing information mechanisms for the monitor and measurement of performance

Consistent with the norms of direct practice, supervisees engage in activities that are aside from work involving direct, face-to-face contact with clients, or work on behalf of clients directly related to their needs. Such supportive, or 'metawork' in the words of Goldberg et al (1989 : 217), enhance direct activities.

'Metawork' include recording, planning and organising exercises, attending meetings, workshops, or professional development endeavours. These activities are monitored and measured by means of information mechanisms designed to help supervisors and supervisees meet their separate obligations within the context of participatory management in supervision. In order for those mechanisms to be effective, they have to have minimum characteristics so that they might better aid the process of conducting satisfactory monitoring and measurement of the 'metawork'. Characteristics found to be most prominent in the use of a variety of mechanisms and which the literature highlights are the following (Caputo 1988 : 132-145; Cheney and Lyons 1980 : 26-31; Newman 1975: 6-9; Pettes 1979 : 54):

(a) The information collected and stored is made accurate, timely, and able to facilitate decision-making processes in the planning, control, operation, and evaluation of activities undertaken by supervisors and supervisees.

(b) Some control mechanisms aid pre-action like budgetary planning processes that allow adequate material and financial resources to be determined and procured on the basis of properly identified needs and ways to respond to those needs;

(c) Some control mechanisms have a steering capability, whereby they ease the task of detecting deviations from desired goals and correcting such deviations before particular sequential actions are completed;

(d) Mechanisms have the capability of facilitating the screening of specific aspects of procedures, thereby helping

supervisors and supervisees in approving or disapproving identified aspects;

(e) The measurement of the results of action and the decision whether to reward favorable action would be dependent on accurate, reliable information. Some control mechanisms are therefore designed as aids with a post-action capability.

In answer to the question whether they had engaged in the controlling function of designing data gathering mechanisms, supervisors were empirically found to have done so to a very large extent in current supervisory situations. This finding was derived from the claims made by supervisors and supervisees, and which are represented by the high scores in Table 9.10 below.

Table 9.10 The designing of data-gathering mechanisms by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	100% (21)	0% (0)
Supervisees	0% (0)	21% (18)	71% (60)	8% (6)

It may further be deduced from Table 9.10 above that in the confirmed participatory environment of current supervisory situations, this function would involve the appropriate participation of supervisees. However, the significant number of supervisees who had declared that their supervisors had seldom completed this activity could indicate an acceptable level and

standard of designing that did not require continuing attention. This assumption is partially supported by the direct declaration by all supervisors that they had done so frequently rather than at all times or seldom. Notwithstanding these conclusions, the positive participation by supervisors in this managerial function would be particularly useful in that precise data needed for conducting evaluation of performance might be ensured with the aid of mechanisms, the design of which both supervisors and supervisees had been responsible (Kadushin 1992 i : 389, 398).

Several of the participant supervisors and supervisees in the empirical survey drew attention to the continuing use of the examples of the data gathering mechanisms contained in Appendices D to I, and which were designed by the researcher. These mechanisms are also used as multi-purpose control guides or sheets since they have the capability to serve several of the purposes discussed under points (a) to (e) above (Caputo 1988: 132-145; Cheney and Lyons 1980 : 26-31; Gangat and Naidoo 1987 : 146-147; Newman 1975 : 6-9; Pettes 1979 : 54).

In their official assessment of the aid depicted in Appendices F and G on behalf of the Human Sciences Research Council, Gangat and Naidoo (1987 : 146-147) had found it to be methodical and scientific. This aid is especially geared for application by self-leaders or participatory managers in generic settings.

Other benefits are drawn from the use of those aids depicted in Appendices D to I. The methods of casework, groupwork, and

community work, for example, find special use for them in their own separate ways since they cover aspects of the professional and administrative activities associated with these methods of social work and with which supervisors would contend in the supervisory setting and supervisees in the direct practice situation.

The designs contained in Appendices D to I above have incorporated the following fundamental considerations in recognition of the different requirements of supervisors and supervisees in current supervisory practice (Davies 1985 : 190; French and Bell 1984 : 139; Goldberg et al 1989 : 222; Pettes 1979 : 46 and 54):

(a) The designing of the mechanisms is not static, and the evolution of the latter would involve both supervisors and supervisees in recreating or reviewing them along imaginative, progressive lines.

(b) Mechanisms attempt to fit the supervisors' and supervisees' purposes and identify the amount of clerical support that would be necessary. Therefore, not all of the data-gathering aids would be appropriate in all work settings.

(c) Whereas the usefulness of monitoring and measuring mechanisms as forms of communication is accepted, they are meant to convey not only the type and quality of the work done, but also the development of professionalism in the team's practice of social work.

(d) The mechanisms are for easy use in, and the facilitation of, both individual and group sessions among supervisors and supervisees for purposes of managerial planning and review. These sessions also serve as practical forms of monitoring and measuring in which the above administrative or clerical mechanisms are utilised to facilitate similar managerial purposes. Further, both the administrative and practical forms are jointly used to aid the processes of diagnosing barriers to effective performance. Subsequently these mechanisms help supervisors and supervisees find ways to overcome barriers as well as achieve the following:

* inculcate the ability to get the work done;
* give guidelines as to the standards by which their endeavours ought to be conducted;
* provide a channel by which their work may be perceived as done and assessed;
* allow for their role and goal clarification;
* help them to continually refocus on decision-making;
* create opportunities to problem-solve without the presence of rigid boundaries;
* encourage shared assessment and allocation of tasks amomg themselves; and,
* facilitate appropriate sharing of decision-making among themselves.

(4) Evaluating performance and results

Smith (1980 : 105 of 2) regards the evaluation process as primarily to provide accurate, reliable, and comprehensive

information for decision-making systems, a purpose well suited to the requirements of supervision whereby the information provided guide supervisors and supervisees in their pursuit of set goals and objectives.

The focus of evaluation in the context of supervision would be on the work of supervisees by supervisors, or by way of peer review techniques by supervisees themselves. This focus is adopted instead of an evaluation of the supervisee's role as 'expert' or of his job, which would primarily involve a valuing or grading of the job, would be rationalised, institutionalised, and given similar meanings in its repeated usage (Blackler 1993 : 882; Quaid 1993 : 239; Smit 1992 : 9).

Guided by the contributions of Austin (1981 : 226), Barker (1987 : 118), and Kadushin (1985 : 272; and 1992 i : 61), techniques of evaluation take the form of objective appraisal of the **work** of supervisees with the aid of systematic procedures and criteria, and in relation to the attainment of individual and group goals; evaluative inferences following from those procedures; appraisal of the quality of the supervisees' performances; and, quaging the quantity of their accomplishments.

The systematic procedures and criteria for evaluation are jointly adopted by supervisors and supervisees on account of the participatory nature of their relationship. The literature recommends several such procedures and criteria that are currently used in supervision. Of note are contributions by

Austin (1981 : 210-211), Beer (1981 : 24-36), Fourie (1982 : 164-170), Grobbelaar (1990 : 49), Kadushin (1985 : 335; and 1992 i : 352-357), Knoetze (1985 : 132-139), Weiss (1972 : 92-109) all of which are similar in their emphases. The most appropriate features are those that denote criteria and procedures. In the supervisory situation they assume the following main characteristics:

(a) Evaluation procedures distinquish between the performance and potential of supervisees when guaging their performance; this approach produces a true reflection of how they are performing without projecting beyond the present;

(b) Supervisors apply standards uniformly, especially since supervisees enjoy equal status;

(c) Evaluation begins where supervisees are in their developement; in this way supervisors avoid unfair expectations of supervisees;

(d) Supervisors do not separate evaluation from development; helping supervisees to develop through evaluation is part and parcel of the evaluation process;

(e) Evaluation sessions are conducted in a planned, stepped fashion, in a sequence of open-ended discussions, exploration of the status quo, discussion of solution to problems, agreement on performance plans for improvements, and closing evaluative comment; an organised approach like this clarifies direction, purpose, and the fruits of supervisees' pursuits;

(f) Supervisors maintain focus in the evaluation process so that slippage between completed and intended action is obviated;

(g) Supervisors regard it as professionally imperative to find

out the effects of the performance of supervisees on communities and institutions so that they are able to learn and judge the dynamics of their performance;

(h) The choice of evaluation method is governed by the developmental needs of supervisees; in this way the evaluation is realistic and appropriate;

(i) The chosen administrative and technical assistance for the evaluation system avoids placing an unreasonable burden on supervisors; cumbersome, tedious mechanisms and techniques are liable to cause them to detract from the purpose and planned direction of evaluation;

(j) The evaluation methods do not accommodate differing perceptions held by supervisors and supervisees on performance standards or evaluation procedures. This approach facilitates smooth communication and reliable, valid evaluation results;

(k) Supervisors have adequate knowledge, training, and skill in evaluation procedures and methods; those who have inadequate skills ought to undergo immediate education and training through in-house development programmes or other appropriate means;

(l) Supervisors and supervisees should have knowledge and understanding of the evaluation standards and criteria that apply in their situation; unless they are able to fill their knowledge gaps or gain understanding, the effort to apply the standards uniformly would be futile.

Evaluation systems reflecting the above procedures and criteria involve either formal or informal methods since each would be equally facilitative of the evaluation process. Methods proposed

by Fombrun and Laud (1983 : 25) and Odiorne (1984 : 26, 260, 261) echo those methods used in current supervision:

(a) **Essay/narrative method.** This method allows for the development of a descriptive evaluation of the supervisees' work. It includes all the aspects relevant to the quantity and quality of their work, and well as their knowledge, attitude, skill, and goal attainment as alluded to in the above discussion.

Respondents who had participated in the empirical survey and who were employed by the Cape Town Child Welfare Society at the time, had indicated that their management used the essay/narrative method with much success in the evaluation of the work of all their professional staff. It may be assumed that the said organisation had found the essay/narrative method to be appropriate in its case.

(b) **Weighted checklist method.** This method require that supervisors and supervisees assign weights to work behaviors according to **actual** and **desired** situations as affecting their own work tasks. Based on the formulations of Anthony (1978), Appendix J is an example of the type of checklist that the researcher had used in organisational settings. It resembles the job-simulation 'management-assessment process' which Weiner (1990 : 348) has found to be popular in modern human services personnel systems. Aspects of the work functions and attributes of supervisees are put to them to measure their knowledge, skills, abilities, and personal characteristics in respect of the latter in different work situations.

The matrix contained in Appendix J is preceded by a full explanation to the participant of the rationale of the checklist, and the manner in which it is to be completed. Its design allows for easy and quick reference for checking the degree to which participatory principles are applied in a work situation in accordance with several functions. Once scores derived from completed lists have been totalled in each column, evaluative inferences may be made from the types of functions that supervisors (leaders) and supervisees are engaged in.

Alternatively, informal or unstructured evaluation are used with less rigid, more flexible rules of application than might be associated with the above evaluation aids and processes. For example, the informal type of evaluation are conducted randomly, on a day-to-day basis, using instant, spontaneous feedback on work well done, or expressed displeasure at deviations from standards by either supervisees or supervisors, and a subsequent recommending of corrective action (Drucker 1988 : 111; Lawler et al 1984 : 20-35).

On the basis of Drucker's view that the manager ought to be governed and controlled by the objectives of his performance rather than by his senior, supervisors and supervisees adopt his 'Management by Objectives' (MBO) approach. The latter has the distinction of having several inherent capabilities that support the need for professional autonomy, and which supervisors and supervisees use in specific ways (Wren 1987 : 366).

Primarily, they identify explicit objectives that provide for their appropriate participation in management, identify conflicting objectives, and foster acceptance of responsibility and evaluation of their performance by results. They utilise its characteristics as a control mechanism for feedback and the measurement of the accomplishment of objectives with little reliance on formal administrative mechanisms. They are guided in selecting paths of corrective action whenever deviations from standards and the pursuit of objectives are identified through evaluation (Miringoff 1980 : 123-124; Wren 1987 : 366).

Supervisors were directly approached, and supervisees were similarly approached about their supervisors in connection with their controlling function of measuring the performance and results of the performance of their supervisees. The findings clearly indicated that this task in current supervision was indeed well practiced. The respondents' reactions are reflected in the scores given in Table 9.11 below.

Table 9.11 Supervisors'evaluation of supervisees' performance and results

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	100% (21)	0% (0)
Supervisees	0% (0)	0% (0)	79% (66)	21% (18)

The scores in Table 9.11 above are conclusive evidence of a unanimous recognition by the participating supervisors of their

responsibility for evaluating the work of their supervisees. In current supervisory practice, however, the function of evaluation has been shown to involve the participation of supervisees not only as the subjects of it but also as co-planners in the various aspects of its format, methods, and techniques. This involvement represents further evidence of the 'deep' participation in the form of decision-making that Herman (1991 : 25) alludes to. It also stresses that this management function operated through those involved, that it is not a disembodied practice, and that it requires the discrete interdependence or interplay of supervisors and supervisees during the evaluation process (Kadushin 1992 i : 347-348; Townley 1993 : 223 and 231).

(5) Correcting discrepancies

It is the ongoing function of supervisors to help supervisees correct deviations in path goals that might at times occur inadvertently, and which could substantially change the course of their actions towards goal-attainment. Crow and Odewahn (1987 : 13) assert that correction is '...the final, and perhaps, key element in the evaluation process'. For this reason it would be correct to assume that it too should be subject to specific criteria. Supervisees therefore accept the responsibility of corrective actions in respect of their own performance. Such acceptance is expressed on the strength of their professional code of practice that recognises, inter alia, their capacity to correct their own performance.

Poor performance would be expressed in the form of ineffectiveness, and supervisees, under the guidance and support of supervisors, exercise their function of correcting deviations or the ineffectiveness of their performance in ways that include one or more of the following considerations, depending on the evaluation of their performance (Barker 1987 : 12; Drucker 1973 : 80-81; Inzerilli and Rosen 1983 : 286):

(a) They think through their specific function as participative managers of the direct service that they render whenever they lose track of what this function is and how they should exercise it.

(b) They redress their actions whenever they deviate from their set goals and objectives. Without redress, the misuse of their competencies in misdirected action will continue.

(c) They review priorities, targets, and performance standards if results fall short of their professed goals and objectives.

(d) They seek the assistance of supervisors to re-delineate the measurement of their performance standards whenever the latter are lacking or lose their appropriateness.

(e) Whenever chosen, self-correcting, feedback mechanisms are formalised and regularly reviewed so that the judgement of their performance is not delayed to the point where incorrect actions are carried too far and thus too entrenched to be easily corrected.

(f) They carry out an audit of their collective and participative goal achievement in situations where their individual goals and objectives are at a tangent and do not form a coherent whole.

In answer to the question whether supervisors engaged in the correction of outcome discrepancies as a controlling function, supervisors and supervisees in the current practice setting scored highly for this action of control. The scores are represented in Table 9.12 below.

Table 9.12 Supervisor's correction of outcome discrepancies

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	10% (2)	76% (16)	14% (3)
Supervisees	0% (0)	7% (6)	71% (60)	22% (18)

Apart from the difference in the perceptions of supervisors and supervisees, the findings in Table 9.12 above present as strong evidence that supervisors in current practice were aware of the necessity to identify errors in the actions performed by supervisees, and that helping them correct those errors was equally important. According to Kadushin (1985 : 335), supervisors practice this role in order that supervisees' future performance might be improved. However, The collective responsibility of supervisors and supervisees in all spheres of their professional roles include the evaluation of performance and the subsequent correction of deviations whenever these are found. These are fundamental, managerial functions and tools, and supervisors and supervisees use them participatively at all times (Crow and Odewahn 1987 : 13; Kadushin 1992 i : 370-371).

9.4 Summary

Like the processes of planning and controlling, leading and controlling were discussed in this chapter as the second pair of processes prominently used for the operationalisation of participatory management in supervision. They were shown to have the capacity of affecting each other and those processes of planning, controlling, educating, and supporting.

The discussion of conceptual, procedural, motivational, and social aspects of a situational form of leading concentrated on the particular interpretation and application of it in supervision; the conditions under which it applied; the importance of its role in facilitating inter-worker relations; its function in aiding the processes of setting courses of action for attaining goals and objectives; how supervisors motivate their supervisees in all aspects of the work; and, its impact on the participative decision-making and problem-solving functions of supervisors and supervisees.

Self-leadership by supervisees as an alternative to leading by supervisors was addressed as a possible preference by some given the emphasis on autonomy, self-management, and accountability. As was done in the case of indirect leadership by supervisors, self-leading was discussed in respect of its presence and influence throughout all the other components of the operationalisation of participatory management in supervision.

The process of controlling was treated as having a similar status and significance in relation to leading. Its particular characteristics covered its function in determining the system by which it was used in supervision; the minimum performance standards of supervisees; how their performance is measured and evaluated; and, their collective roles in correcting deviations from set goals and objectives. Several aids found in use in the practice setting and designed specifically to illustrate theoretical propositions were included to demonstrate how the leading and controlling functions are expedited and facilitated.

The processes of educating and supporting are the final processes in the operationalisation of the participatory management in supervision. These are discussed in the ensuing chapter.

CHAPTER 10

EDUCATING AND SUPPORTING IN THE OPERATIONALISATION OF PARTICIPATORY MANAGEMENT

10.1 Introduction

In this final chapter dealing with the operationalisation of participatory management, educating and supporting are evaluated as processes having no less significance or importance than those of planning, organising, leading, and controlling. In highlighting their importance, the evaluation revolves around their separate and combined usefulness in relation to, and in support of, the other processes that have been shown to contribute to the desired implementation of participatory management. Throughout the discussion, use is made of relevant empirical data to support the process of evaluation.

The evaluation of the educating process focusses particularly on the forms of educating and learning that are part of the **management development** of supervisees. This development is also described as one in which the help of their supervisors features prominently, as well as one that takes place alongside their professional development in therapeutic and service-rendering skills. Therefore, the ensuing discussion includes the supervisees' integrative learning, personal proficiency, their view of the world, shared vision, participatory learning methods, and various styles by which their education and learning for the purposes of improving their participatory mode of operation is achieved. The components of their educative and learning

processes represents an assimilation of knowledge and skills that would lead to the assurance of quality in their service and their overal professional development (Joubert 1988 : 7; Van Biljon 1994 : 185).

The supporting function of supervisors is also handled within the management development perspective. The discussion firstly concentrates on the appropriate psychological needs of supervisees as participative managers, and how their capacity is built up in this regard. Secondly, the discussion, supported by relevant empirical data, focusses on their social needs within a work context, and how their behavior is shaped for the purposes of meeting the functional expectations dictated by a participatory mode of management.

10.2 Educating

Since supervisees are expected to develop as participative managers of their own work, it is required of them to engage in educative activity that recognises their status as adult learners, as well as enhance their ability to operate autonomously. This approach calls for adult education principles and androgogical teaching methods.

Consistent with Woodcock and Francis's (1982 : 4-7) views, supervisors endeavour not to deviate from the fundamental expectation that teaching and training are part of the manager's task. In the participatory management context, they exercise this function on the basis of their professional administrative

responsibility as a line function whereby they act as specialist guides and facilitators in helping supervisees, as adult learners, to achieve optimum professional independence (Rothmund and Botha 1991 ii : 28 and 33). They would go about their task propelled by the following principles and according to the androgogical methods proposed by the literature (Knowles' 1978 : 32-39; Pettes 1979 : 65; and Weiner 1990 : 340):

(1) They see themselves as autonomous and independent practitioners, and motivate supervisees to undergo maturation towards improved self-assuredness and the capacity for self-direction;

(2) They allow and create increased opportunities for self-learning by supervisees. By this is meant the conscious search and accumulation of knowledge that would aid the latter in their increasing reservoir of experience;

(3) They allow the learning to be self-directed and self-motivated in relation to the interest of supervisees as learners, to their readiness to learn in order to better fulfil their managerial tasks, and to their level of development and degree of success at having coped with their developmental tasks;

(4) They adopt a problem-centred focus, by pursuing the attainment of knowledge that is useful in the resolution of difficulties in the here and now, as compared to knowledge that is subject-centred and which has only future relevance.

In addition, the gradual learning by supervisees towards a state of improved practice competence would be constructed by themselves, only to be speeded up by supervisors who may find

them lagging and inclined to falter in their pursuit due to poor motivation. This learner-centred process involves their own use of time, place, matter, and method of learning (McKeachie 1980 : 86).

However, such learning is a planned and participative process, since it has to address a range of adult learning needs of supervisees who, on their own, might not have the ability to organise these needs into any order of priority. Specific outcomes, processes, and inputs are thus included in the programme plan, involving the supervisors' identification of how to assess the learning styles of the learner supervisees, the possible use of various learning facilitation methods, time factors such as periods of learning sessions, the creation of a climate for learning, and the setting up of a mutual structure for planning (Brookfield 1986 : 205 and 233; Daines et al 1993 : 11-17).

These planning criteria and methodologies amount to a concerted, conscious influence of the educative process that supervisees undergo and which leads to a desired state of change in their managerial practice. It does not mean though, that the element of resistance to prospective or desired change is obviated. Rather, the presence of resistance is successfully reduced if not removed by way of, for example, convincing supervisees of the need for change, providing information needed to further aid their perception of the present and real state of their

managerial practice, or sharing perceptions already held by others in the work situation.

Whether resistance is pervasive or not, it cannot be expected that any venture to introduce change in the managerial functioning of supervisors or supervisees by way of learning programmes would be to the full satisfaction of those concerned nor that any amount of learning can prevent it. In the context of participatory management, specific educative activities are provided that recognise, like Austin (1981 : 34) correctly observes, that there are differences among workers, and that this would also apply to supervisees. Drawn from the concepts derived from a broad literature search, the following process of education for supervisees appear appropriate.

10.2.1 The educating process

There are characteristics or components of the educating process that supervisees are subjected to as learners in their development as participative managers. These characteristics cover aspects of cognition, values, perceptions, and practice competence, all of which would lend to their development in the following manner:

(1) Encouraging integrative learning

Compared to skills training whereby trainees undergo a systematic process of learning skills for specific work tasks, learner supervisees develop as participative managers through firstly accepting that the onus of learning is squarely on themselves. They would thereafter ask questions confronting new situations,

and come to their own conclusions about that which issues from the educative setting. This self-directed, informal type of learning hinges on the supervisees'ability to integrate intuition with an ability to be focussed on the learning situation (Watkins and Marsik 1992: 292; Wilson 1992 : 103).

Together with the above prerequisites, the management development of supervisees include practical actions that expedite their integrative learning. Planned experiences in the work situation, coaching, learning through action on specific work related tasks, critical self-reflection, and some training serve as effective examples. They would facilitate increased production and a better quality of work, or 'total quality management' (TQM). In terms of the latter, they would be assisted to improve their service effectiveness by an increase in the quality of their work, reliability, and responsiveness to client needs satisfaction (Berman 1995 : 55). There are, therefore, specific developmental benefits for supervisees to be derived from the process of management development (Brookfield 1986 : 190-191; Pheysey 1993 : 164-165; Lessem 1991: 98-99; Wilson 1992: 92-93; Cooper 1981 : 121-122; Halpin 1979 : 3).

Specific educative methods and techniques are used to achieve the educative goals of the management development of supervisees. For example, through experiential learning vis-a-vis being bound by past experiences, learner supervisees use a self-directed, independent mode of education in opening themselves up to the widest number of possible perspectives in order to identify

managerial trends and generate choices, so that their pursuit towards changes in their managerial style can become fully participatory and realistic (Senge 1992 : 7-8).

As long as this approach is congruent with the dominant participatory culture of supervision, it serves as the starting point of an integrated, wider process aimed at the improvement and development of the participatory management performance of as many supervisees in the workplace as possible. The result is the formation of a structural frame of relationships of learning among supervisees as a group that resemble dynamic networks. These would replace static, patterned interactions or relationships predicated on the position or timing of each level of learning associated with individual learners. The participatory learning also provides specialised assistance, for example, in the form of critical reflection or review towards both the understanding and introduction of improved managerial behavior commensurate with the desired change (McGill et al 1992 : 12; Ottoway 1979 : x-xi; Stickland 1992 : 308).

The changed condition could be developmental only (building on the past and leading to better performance over time, eg increased consultation with colleagues), transitional (moving from one state or condition to another, eg from old-fashioned diary systems to computerised 'Gantt' charts), or transformational (changing from one state of being to a new state of being, eg from having limited vision to having clear, long-term vision). The encouragement of learner supervisees to

undergo a process of integrated learning could achieve any or all of the latter purposes (Marshak 1993: 47-49: Wilson 1992 : 6).

Although those supervisors and supervisees approached in current practice did not indicate the type of knowledge or the form of its transmission, it was found that supervisors had indeed transmitted knowledge to their supervisees to a substantial extent. This finding is reflected in the detail included in Table 10.1 below.

Table 10.1 The transmission of knowledge by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	76% (16)	24% (5)
Supervisees	0% (0)	13% (11)	66% (55)	21% (18)

The findings contained in Table 10.1 above validate the accepted role of supervisors as providers of knowledge which would be drawn from their senior experience and knowledge base and would not therefore be that to be gained from in-service training or staff development material (Kadushin 1992 i : 135-138). This role appears also to have been fulfilled in measured fashion given the predominant number of supervisors who were found to have done so only frequently. Supervisors who fulfill this role satisfactorily can only succeed in furthering the development of good relations with their supervisees who would be better equipped with extra knowledge gained from supervisors.

(2) Facilitating personal proficiency

Supervisees would avoid confining their own development to skills or competency development, and instead consolidate their development by acquiring a state of personal proficiency made up of practice competence and behavioral capability. The inclusion of these aspects in their continuing education as participative managers would lead to the excellent development of their personal professional conduct in its broadest sense (Knowles et al 1985 : 26-27; Senge 1992 : 7-8).

Supervisors and supervisees aspire to personal excellence as a fundamental growth goal in their management practice. In the light of the behavioral component, it is regarded as essential therefore that supervisees set out to develop, and be encouraged to develop, sound motivation and self-concept for learning. Whenever these elements are absent in their psychological make-up, the efficacy of the adult education that they undergo is adversely affected, and thus the process of change in levels of professional proficiency is hampered (Daloisio et al 1985 : 31; Handy 1987 : 278).

Consistent with the literature (Jaque 1991 : 64; Thompson and Dispenza 1993 : 21), supervisees with adequate motivation and self-concept - prerequisites considered vital for the attainment of an attitude of mind and metacognition conducive for their critical own beliefs, and for creating their own insights and applying them - are thus able to develop a sense of social conscience, consolidate personal interest, and gain a sense of

enjoyment in the educative process. These, together with the learning of added professional practice skills, all combine as contributors to the overal facilitation of the personal proficiency of the learner supervisees.

(3) Inculcating improved world-view

Supervisees entering new learning situations would bring with them that which they had learnt before. This previous learning would include their own view of the world, a view that is composed of internal pictures that have special meaning for them as individuals. According to Kofman and Senge's (1993 : 7) positing, such views cannot be regarded as facts, since they would be subjective derivatives. In the case of supervisees, they would be derived from what the individual supervisees had gleaned from their own observation of their surroundings.

Subjective views of supervisees are therefore seen as assumptions, to be open to the rigorous scrutiny of others through 'learningful conversations'. This would mean a balance of enquiry and advocacy, whereby they expose their own thinking effectively, make that thinking open to the influence of those with whom they work, engage in continued self-reflection, and extract ideas from one another, to be placed next to, and mesh with, their individual ideas. The subsequent shaping of managerial actions in the process of their development would thus be on the basis of generalisation derived from a conscious linking of various views, ideas, notions, mental images, and core values spawned by supervisees as learners. Inherent in the

generalisation is the acceptance that each supervisee has the 'personal efficacy' to exercise a strong sense of, and responsibility for, learning. That acceptance is initiated by the planting of his original ideas, suggestions, or proposals among his colleagues, a contribution that could, for example, lead to improved world-view (Belbin 1980 : 6; McGill et al 1992 : 13).

It is concluded that supervisees' world-view is manifested in their personal perception of things in the surroundings that they regard as important, or desirable. Consistent with Gibson et al's (1985 : 72) postulation, they would consequently base their own standards and principles on their values. Subjective and personal in nature, their world-view represent values, the transmission of which has been shown to be a well accepted function of supervisors in current supervisory practice.

The prevalence with which the transmission of values applied in the case of supervisees in current supervisory settings was found to be sufficiently evident. The scores shown in Table 10.2 below reflect this finding.

Table 10.2 The transmission of values by supervisors

N=21 Supervisors
N=84 Supervisees

	Never	Seldom	Frequently	At all times
Supervisors	0% (0)	0% (0)	76% (16)	24% (5)
Supervisees	0% (0)	13% (11)	66% (55)	21% (18)

The findings in Table 10.2 above seem to suggest that the predominant number of supervisees were frequently placed under

the influence of supervisors in respect of the exposure to values. It is to be expected that the transfer of social values would feature prominently in the supervisory relationship, and that this might at times cause conflict and stress (Kadushin 1992 i : 27, 255). The measured way in which it was found to have been done in practice should hence be viewed in the light of the latter variable as well as the participatory nature of current supervision.

(4) Motivating shared vision

Participatory management has been shown to rely on close cooperation between supervisors and supervisees, expressed in a strengthening of their belief that desired outcomes in their work can be achieved through individual and participatory endeavour. Without shared vision, however, it cannot be expected that feelings of cooperation and ultimate goals would be achieved.

Shared vision encourages the development in supervisors and supervisees of the assurance that they can jointly contribute to the attainment of desired outcomes. This vision is subject to the belief that they would not belittle or ignore each other's contributions, as well as express a willingness to operate in an atmosphere of openness and nondefensiveness (Plant 1987 : 58).

Drawing on McGill et al (1992 : 13), Senge (1992 : 230), and Wilson (1992 : 92-93), an evaluation of the sharing of vision between supervisors and supervisees suggests that it is underpinned by a strong motivation to show open expression of

that vision coupled with ideas. This expression is possible without the impediment of institutional or hierarchical limits.

Secondly, motivating shared vision includes encouragement of supervisees by supervisors to participatively engage, in clear and enthusiastic fashion, in the betterment of their operation as professionals towards a future ideal state of operation. Sharing of vision is tantamount to an organisational learning among them, whereby it mobilises the voluntary efforts of supervisees to reach the point of excellence in professional conduct in a situation of connectedness to each other, and to the larger purpose of their employing organisation.

Thirdly, the individual supervisee would be motivated to translate his personal vision and deep beliefs into a commitment to truth, integration of his reason and intuition, a consolidation of his connectedness to others in his working environment and the larger organisation, and a continuing preparedness for learning. As a display of his example, a learner supervisee's sharing of vision on these grounds can only lend to the achievement of influence over his peers who are likewise part of the planned change of professional conduct through participatory management development.

It is suggested that the motivation of shared vision and the inculcation of improved world-view are similar on the basis that both are concerned with the transmission of values. It has been for the purpose of highlighting and clarifying the particular

merits of each one that they were handled separately in this research. Further, that the perception of supervisors and supervisees of the supervisor's role in transmitting values as embodied in Table 10.2, and the conclusions drawn from them, would therefore also apply to the participatory role of supervisors and supervisees in the motivating of shared vision.

10.2.2 Using group learning methods

The attainment of the educating process is possible through individual as well as group methods, on the basis of the principles of sharing, collaboration, cooperation, and egalitarianism in current supervision. Corresponding with Handy's (1987 : 277 and 281) analysis of ideal group learning settings, participatory modes of operation in supervision creates a conducive climate for supervisees to learn as individuals in a group learning milieu.

Whereas, as Kadushin (1985 : 414; and 1992 i : 408) states, it is the responsibility of supervisors to establish favorable group learning conditions in current supervisory practice, supervisees contribute appropriately to supervisors' efforts to achieve the latter, by cooperating and collaborating in the process. Norms such as equal participation in learning exercises, fair response to interactions and enquiries, sharing of educative material, and the introduction of a learning contract are made part and parcel of the educative process (Kadushin 1985 : 415-416; Daines et al 1993 : 11-17; Watkins and Marsick 1992 : 292).

The learning contract between supervisors and supervisees is a useful means for identifying ways of achieving change goals for supervisees. The integration of individual and group learning initiatives thus attained produces the opportunity for supervises to disseminate that which is learned among themselves. The dissemination would echo the Gestaltist notion of confluence which in this instance describe the process of supervisees giving up any residual sense of boundary or differentiation, merging together to form a collective identity of homogeneity, yet separating and connecting as conditions demand and without the loss of identity or autonomy (Stickland 1992 : 309-310; Watkins and Marsick 1992 : 292;

In order to succeed in converting confluence to effective group learning, supervisees are kept aware of their collective perceptions, their existence as a group, their sharing of visions as well as aims and ideas, and adherence to the norms, roles, statuses and emotional relationships that are at play in the life of their collectivity. The achievement of these conditions gives rise to a cohesive state of continuing learning, and closer alignment and commonality of direction among supervisees (Jaque 1991 : 10-13; Senge 1992 : 234).

By aligning with others in the group learning milieu, supervisees have a dual role, that is, one of group members and one of employees. As group members, supervisees call on their own skill acquired through the previous use of appropriate group activities for learning, in pursuit of their development as participatory

managers or direct practitioners. The exercise of those skills in the group activities of learning are subject to pertinent assumptions about how supervisees perform in group learning situations (Belbin 1980:2; Daines et al 1993:11-17).

By taking both the individual characteristics and combined needs of supervisors into account, assumptions about their group learning performance include any or all of the following, based on French and Bell's (1984 : 46-48) formulations:

* Feelings of satisfaction and competence are most relevant in group settings due to the atmosphere of support or acknowledgement that supervisees give to each other;
* Supervisors and supervisees need to feel accepted and of worth in order for them to act cooperatively;
* Assisted leadership by supervisors, rather than 'one man shows', is much more participative and stimulating;
* The attitudes, feelings, and views of supervisees play a distinct role in the group learning milieu; and,
* Trust and support among supervisees would be maintained at high levels.

Assumptions are further influenced by supervisees' expression of collaborative and cooperative principles through peer tutoring among them. They would encourage each other to think for themselves, show high commitment to the learning process, share information, and accommodate conflict. As a result, the coordinated strategy for learning about working together and improving skills in cooperation is advanced. The success of this

cooperation, to be gauged by the extent to which supervisees had undergone any significant transformation, would depend on the degree to which each of them takes part in, and accepts responsibility for, it. Generative conversations and concerted action are two techniques that facilitate successful cooperation between supervisors and supervisees (Abercrombie 1980 : 19-21; Casey 1985 : 27; Jaque 1991 : 10).

10.2.3 Educative and learning styles

The process of educating and the use of particular skills in imparting managerial knowledge, values, and change concepts would invariably reflect the educative and teaching styles of supervisors. In turn, it would be logical to assume that those educative and learning styles would have a bearing on the nature and outcome of the educative process. Handy (1987 : 280) writes that people are different and therefore display varying intellectual levels of functioning in life. In the same vein, Kadushin (1985 : 160) draws attention to the fact that supervisees are different in their uniqueness as learners, alluding to varying capacity for learning based on intellectual makeup, and knowledge gaps.

Rather than adopt task-centred and subject-centred educative styles, supervisors would accept a learner-centred approach, in which full recognition is given to the unique learning needs of supervisees. This approach is also preferred on the basis that the autonomy of supervisees would allow them opportunity to seek their own unique ways whereby they might wish to fill their own

knowledge gaps. Therefore, as educators, supervisors take cognisance of this tendency.

On the contrary, when supervisors persist in bringing their own educative styles to the learning situation, based on their own assessment of supervisees as potential learners, differing supervisee reactions to supervisors's style are evoked. The variety in reactions therefore reflect differing learning need, as well as signal the supervisors' need to self-criticise their material and/or style of teaching, to adapt that style in conformity with the type of learner supervisees, or to adopt new educative styles.

As an initial action, review of material and/or style present an opportunity for the supervisor to learn more about the supervisees' style of learning, thoughts, ideas, and suggestions (Daines et al 1993: 11-17; Knowles et al 1985 : 26-27). The result of reviewing educative material and/or components of the supervisees's learning style aids the process of devising and using an appropriate adult education programme for them. Several of the steps for the educative process identified by Botha (1985 : 241-242) are commonly included in current supervisory practice:

(1) A suitable climate for learning is created. Physical, emotional, and organisational conditions, and social and interpersonal relations among supervisees are consciously made facilitative of learning.

(2) The supervisory setting serves as the structure by which supervisors and supervisees participatively plan the educative process and material.

(3) Supervisees's interests, needs, and values are evaluated. Self analysis of these characteristics is possible, and helps supervisees reconcile the needs of the organisation and those of their own.

(4) Objectives based on the evaluation of supervisees's interests, needs, and values, are set so that educative programmes are in full conformity.

(5) Supervisors and supervisees jointly implement educative programmes, and supervisees consequently implement that which they have learned.

(6) The effectiveness of the educative process is jointly evaluated by supervisors and their supervisees with the aid of previously determined techniques and according to previously determined foci.

The learner-centred approach, regarded as an indispensible element of good teaching, thus presents an ongoing challenge to educative supervisors. Similar to the requirements applied in other learning situations described by the literature (Cherniss and Egnatios 1978 : 222; McPeck 1990 : 48-53; Ramsden 1988 : 276; Westheimer 1977 : 69) supervisors are required to take cognisance of the learning styles of their supervisees and approach the educative process with this in mind.

Corresponding with Rothmund and Botha's (1991 ii : 33) observation, some supervisees would express the most appropriate inclination by adult learners in their preference for concrete experience of their learning through stimulation of their senses, or actively experiment with the material presented. Others might prefer to conceptualise learning situations and material in an abstract fashion, or alternatively reflect on that which they had observed. On the basis of a realistic assessment of their supervisees in accordance with these various learning styles, supervisors would consequently prefer to adapt their preferred educative styles, setting educative objectives to suit the learning styles with which they are faced (Austin 1981 : 253; Kolb et al 1984 : 18-45).

Austin (1981 : 312), Ramsden (1988 : 277-279), Viscoine (1984 : 42), and Westheimer (1977 : 63-70) suggest several considerations that should be made in the setting of educative objectives. An appropriate number of these objectives are incorporated in the processes of educational planning and learning in the supervisory setting:

(1) Supervisees are guided through a process of appropriate learning, in recognition of their self-consciousness of ignorance, insecurity, and idiosyncratic learning habits;

(2) The educative process evokes favorable responses from non-participating supervisees who might be aroused to dousing undue ambivalence in them about the need for learning;

(3) The educative process encourages in supervisees a better understanding of the working situation, the development of

improved mastery in how to act, and competence in the integration of understanding and action;

(4) Supervisees should gain new perceptions and ways to test their understanding of new knowledge gained;

(5) Opportunities are created for the establishment of mechanisms such as discussion groups or electronic mail, whereby supervisees impart that which they have learned through basic knowledge sharing or advice for action to correct deviations in work performance.

These objectives thus represent a systematic approach. They reflect a sequenced teaching strategy including a focus on the psychological states of supervisors, social dynamics concerning them and their colleagues, an operationalisation of the material learned, and a transference of the learning to service and managerial tasks (Morton and Kurtz 1980 : 240-246; Zajonc 1980 : 151-175).

To expedite the educative strategy of planned action based on proper assessment and objectives, several techniques postulated by the literature are used. Of these, those considered most frequently featuring in current practice include explaining, encouraging, questioning, summarising, feeding-back, supporting, information-giving, directing, reassuring, and resolving conflict (Botha 1985:246; Kadushin 1985:188-212; Shulman 1982:87-152).

10.3 Supporting

The participatory mode of management in supervision could provoke stress reactions in supervisees as a result of feelings of inadequacy and thus an inability to share the responsibility of management with supervisors. Reactions of stress would be psychological and physical. In situations where these occur, each type receives particular attention for redress.

Negative reactions manifested in the form of poor ego strength, stress, anxiety, tension, poor conviction, uncertainty, lack of faith, dissatisfaction, low morale, or poor relations, necessitate the rendering of support by supervisors to those supervisees who are affected (Rothmund and Botha 1991 i : 17-23; Kadushin 1985 : 306-307).

The supportive function in participatory management in supervision comprises psycho-social interventions by supervisors that reinforce the ego defences of supervisees and strengthen the capacity of their ego to deal with job stresses and tensions. It is described as a process with the capacity to allow supervisees to engage in conscious efforts in creating feelings of approval and developing personal relations among themselves, providing fair treatment, and enforcing team rules equitably (Kadushin 1985 : 201-202; 229; and 1992 i : 260-263). It is, however, conceded that unless, as was found by Rauktis and Koeske (1994 : 45-55) in their study among 111 social workers, workload demands are not excessive, the supportive role will lose its effect.

10.3.1 The supporting process

Given its main focus on ego capacity, the supporting process aims to remove, or at least ameliorate, the negative states that supervisees experience, all of which are the outcome of poor need satisfaction. Unless the supporting process succeeds in doing so, the risk of the occurence of other poor psychological states would be heightened (Maddi and Kobasa 1984 : 54).

Extreme stress, identified by emotional, mental, and physical exhaustion (commonly recognised as 'burnout'), is one such psychological state that merit supportive intervention. Ross and Fridjhon (1995 : 265) are of the opinion that burnout is a '... smouldering problem among South African social workers', a situation which they maintain calls for ongoing stress-coping strategies. Supervisees who might be affected to this extent would thus require techniques of supportive intervention. It would help them to cope better with job demands through improved use of internal resources, building on good self-image, and valuing their efforts. Alternatively, the intervention would provide suitable external resources; help them to adapt their personal goals, expectations, and preferences; and provide coping substitutes for the withdrawal that accompanies their states of burnout (Botha 1985 : 247; Cherniss 1980 : 158; Kadushin 1992 i : 275-277).

As a first step in the introduction of supportive intervention, supervisors identify the possible causes of the negative psychological state of their supervisees, and react accordingly.

For example, causes of stress or tension might be borne out of the apparently difficult nature of interventive or managerial tasks; poor relationships among peers; unreasonable policy and functioning of the agency of employ; or, poor community attitude towards the service provided. Whatever the cause or causes might be, the supporting process focusses on both psychological and social forms of need on the basis of which the process of support commences (Austin 1981 : 289; Cherniss 1980 : 125).

(1) Meeting psychological needs and building capacity

In the effort to counter the poor psychological states and the lack of performance capacity mirrored in supervisees' managerial performance, the supporting process would adopt action that encourages their personal growth and sustain their morale. Supervisors achieve these objectives through the application of several actions. These are well mirrored in the formulations of a copious literature that largely overlaps in its repeated suggestions for action on the following lines (Cox et al 1979 : 186; Kolb et al 1984 : 102; Maddi and Kobassa 1984 : 54; McGrath 1983 : 1352; Rosch 1992 : 69; Simon 1983 : 12-23):

* Supervisees are aided to have control over irritants which can be changed, and to accept those that cannot be changed. Irritation might arise from their own use of outmoded administrative procedures or the poor leadership style of supervisors;
* Stress, tension and anxiety arising from role conflict or professional inadequacy is allayed by the interpretation of role expectations, guiding supervisees on ways to fill

competency gaps, and easing their adaptation through constant advice and support;

* The need for goal displacement caused by new, previously unrecognised objectives is interpreted to supervisees. Such objectives are made clear and measureable so that the tension or uncertainty caused in the past is further reduced;
* Good health practices are encouraged since they would impinge favorably on the supervisees' overal disposition;
* The faith of supervisees is raised and fortified by encouraging their willingness to adapt goals as the situation demands, to seek more knowledge to equip themselves for future situations, and to accept failure;
* Supervisees' level of certainty and conviction about the potential for effectivity of their professional roles is raised by encouraging appropriate control of external conditions, like the organisational climate or access to information;
* Satisfiers are introduced in the form of continual feedback on good work or errors made, delegation of responsibilities, and rewards. The satisfaction thus experienced by supervisees is derived from conscious, direct experience built on a foundation of trust between themselves and supervisors;
* Supervisees are guided on how to adequately engage in their tasks in order to avoid quantitative underloading (insufficient engagement), quantitative overloading (excessive engagement), or qualitatively overloading (lacking

the ability or resources needed for meeting professional expectations).

The overall format of the above actions are ideally loaded with the ingredients needed for the enhancement of supervisees' personal growth. The latter would be manifested in their improved performance capacity, and the sustaining of their confidence, discipline, optimism, and morale.

(2) Meeting social needs and shaping behavior

The actions involved in the improvement of the psychological state and inadequate performance capacity of supervisees are augmented by complementary actions that further help them meet their social needs for self-worth, security, and belonging. A survey of the relevant literature offered many actions that are prevalent in current supervisory situations and which are shown to have been efficacious and reliable in meeting social and behavioral needs among supervisory managers. Drawing on the contributions of Austin (1981 : 289), Barker (1987 : 149), Hamner (1989 : 445), Landau (1992 : 69), and Pettes (1979 : 46), the following are regarded as pertinent examples:

* With the aid of a supportive supervisor, supervisees are promoted in their sense of being in control in individual situations wherein they act or make decisions independently; and participatively in situations wherein they act in unison with supervisors while making decisions on equitable terms according to the participatory management mode of operation;
* Authority held by supervisors in working relationships are

recognised and used as a constructive element at all times; these relationships are used to cement closer work ties between supervisors and supervisees;

* The practice of leadership by supervisors involved in the relationships with supervisees is adapted to the latter's different needs, their varying levels of maturity, and their practice expertise;
* Feedback and controlled interaction are used by supervisors as a means whereby they exercise their participatory roles in supportive ways towards supervisees at all times;
* The behavior of supervisees is modified whenever such behavior needs to be renewed. Modification is achieved through progressive reinforcement of desired behaviors. Reinforcement and the shaping of behavior is, however, governed by rules of minimum standards, fair and appropriate acknowledgement of actions, timeous response and credit, and reprimand with circumspection.

In the exercise of eliciting supervisors' and supervisees' perception of the supportive function of supervision, it was established that supervisors had indeed indulged well in the effort to meet the psychological and social needs of their supervisees, and thereby shaping their behavior. Of particular note is the finding that, contrary to the scores in respect of the overwhelmimg number of the previously discussed empirical findings, supervisees were very positive in declaring the supportive role that their supervisors had played. This finding is reflected in the overall scores shown in Table 10.3 below.

Table 10.3 The supportive function of supervisors

N=21 Supervisors (s)
N=84 Supervisees (sw)

	Never		Seldom		Frequently		At all times	
	s	sw	s	sw	s	sw	s	sw
Facilitating personal growth	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	2% (2)	76% (16)	57% (48)	24% (5)	41% (34)
Sustaining morale	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	2% (2)	86% (18)	57% (48)	14% (3)	41% (34)
Increasing sense of worth	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	1% (1)	86% (18)	58% (49)	14% (3)	41% (34)
Encouraging sense of security	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	1% (1)	76% (16)	52% (43)	24% (5)	47% (40)
Encouraging sense of belonging	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	2% (2)	76% (16)	52% (43)	24% (5)	46% (39)

It may be further deduced from the data given in Table 10.4 above that, since the predominant number of supervisors were either frequently involved in supporting their supervisees or at all times, the intensity of support in both ways reflects a continual position of influence by supervisors over their supervisees. This situation would grant supervisors the advantage of shaping the behavior of those supervisees, and indeed build on their improved self-image and relationship with them. Consequently, the supervisees' capacity for problem-solving, the building of their morale, and a constructive heightening of their motivation could be achieved (Kadushin 1992 i : 92-93; Ramaleba 1992 : 9).

10.4 Summary

The educating and supporting functions of supervisors in current supervisory situations were evaluated in this chapter as the last

pair of functions needed for the operationalisation of participatory management in those situations. The discussion attempted to highlight the particular capabilities of these functions which merited the same importance that was ascribed to the other functions of planning, organising, leading, and controlling.

In view of the emphasis on the managerial role of supervisees, the main thrust of the evaluation of the educating process was confined to their management development. However, without ignoring the importance of the acquisition of interventive skills through education and learning within the participatory management approach, the development of supervisees was discussed in terms of integrative learning, the improvement of their personal proficiency, a sharing of their world views and common vision, the ways and benefits of learning in group settings, and how they exercise their own styles of learning.

The discussion of the supporting function of supervision was also handled in relation to its presence in the participatory management setting of current supervision. The supporting process differentiated between psychological and social needs relevant to the direct practice setting, and described how they are met. These needs revolved around personal growth, morale, self-worth, security, and belonging, each appropriately assigned to either the psychological or social type of needs.

The data on the educating and supporting functions of supervisors in current supervisory settings were those that were empirically obtained in selected settings. Whereas the data highlighted the extent to which educating and supporting featured in those settings, they served as relevant material for evaluating the distinctive nature of the educative and supportive components of the participatory management function of supervision, and the extent to which they were applied.

CHAPTER 11

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

There is no doubt that supervision is an essential part of social work. Since its inception, however, it has undergone gradual change vis-a-vis the introduction of alternative forms of guiding social workers in meeting their professional obligations. This research had set out to evaluate the change of supervision in respect of the development of participatory management between supervisors and supervisees. The conclusions and recommendations drawn in this chapter are based on the analysis and interpretation of the study of relevant literature supported by the findings of the empirical research.

11.1 CONCLUSIONS

The primary function of supervision is to direct and guide the work of social workers. It denotes a dichotomy of supervisor and supervisee that has not remained unchanged. Gradual change in their roles have seen the introduction of increasingly managerial forms of role functioning.

The constant flux in environmental conditions, socio-political dispensations, and organisational characteristics have impacted on social work. Increased pressure had continually been put on managements to allow less control of work and more participation by all organisational personnel in policy matters and the operationalisation of strategic plans. The refusal to accept

static systems and the expression of the right to differ are well echoed in these trends. However, calls for the cessation of supervision as a service to social workers have not been found to accompany the latter trends.

The relevant literature appear to have captured the onset and perpetuation of change to a large extent, highlighting its continuing significance in the human services and how ecological factors contribute to the need for further change. Tangible responses in the form of real change in many aspects of the management of direct service have been given to the exhortations of professionals in the general workplace who had lobbied for increased autonomy, independence, professional respect, and accountability to the profession and communities they serve. A situation has therefore been created wherein organisations respond more and more to demands for systems that are less dependent on excessive accountability to seniors, or on systems of control. As a result, organisations have become more bent on reducing the undermining of professional capability by introducing systems of management that do not stifle professional capability through excessive controls. Supervisees in current supervision have been benefited in a similar fashion.

There is general consensus, however, that any proposed change should be initiated without the loss of quality of service. Indeed, change in the mode of management of direct practice have tended to uplift quality through better worker participation. Systems of change therefore attempt to be realistic, effective,

and feasible. Those who are affected are made fully aware of the motivations for change, the various options considered before the implementation of the change, and the expectations that are placed on them.

The evaluative research has found that changes introduced thusfar has impacted positively on supervision, and that those changes are constantly developing. This research has, for example, cast light upon the positive nature of the phenomenon of participatory management in current supervision, how it has benefited the practice, and the prospects of its development within the profession. Despite these changes, the need for supervision remains intact.

11.1.1 Theoretical perspective of social work supervision and management

Supervision has built up a vast body of knowledge, skills, and attributes that is own to it and that it expects of supervisors. Its objectives and practical implementation are an expression of its first aim to ensure that supervisees provide a quality service to recipients. In order to fulfil this responsibility, supervisors have to have the necessary knowledge, skills, and attributes. They can only fulfil this responsibility with success if their employing organisations can provide the minimum conditions needed.

Since the beginning of the last decade, the integration of management principles, methods, and processes have made their presence felt in the traditional supervisory body of knowledge,

and have added to its selection of skills. This integration had brought about fundamental conceptual or practice changes to supervision. Supervisors and supervisees have begun to use standard management techniques in their interrelationships without a change in the positionary and functional authority of supervisors.

Current supervisory practice, though more managerial in nature, remains intact. Supervisees are thus given the continuing opportunity to internalise that which supervisors are able to offer them through individual and group conferences. The latter are conducted under the auspices of supervisors who would have obtained their positions on the strength of their superior knowledge and experience, and with the retention of some functions of control consistent with the supervisory role.

Supervisors generally act in essentially managerial roles as leaders in planning, organising, and controlling the work of their supervisees. This practice is now more shared with supervisees who are no longer caught in master-subordinate situations with their supervisors. Instead, current systems of supervisory management allow for the combination of standard administrative, educative, and supportive theory of supervision with contemporary management paradigms that are capable of achieving the ideal of true participation by supervisors and supervisees in all the functions associated with direct practice management. This evaluative research has shown that the adoption,

integration, and continuing use of participatory management in supervision has served well in this regard.

11.1.2 Supervisory system change through participatory management

Since the Taylorist era of the early 1900's in which the theory of the one best way of completing work tasks had featured prominently, a systematic process of change had taken place, away from such mechanistic forms of labour to more humanistic type approaches in the workplace. This change spanned several decades, culminating in the present-day, and irreversible, establishment of schools of thought and indeed workplace procedures strongly bent on participation.

The humanisation of management has made inroads on many fields of work including the human services. It is now commonplace to find organisational managements adopting participatory measures in reviewing their systems. It is equally obvious that the participatory management lobby has made much headway in establishing itself in the supervision of direct practice. However, this research has found that there is scope for the introduction of participatory management on a wider scale than at present found in supervision practice, as well as a development of it.

Participatory management has introduced fundamental change in the way supervisors and supervisees were accustomed to cooperate in the quest for goal attainment in previous times. It has brought about a substantial systemic change towards achieving equity in

professioanl conduct between supervisors and supervisees. Embracing all the components of supervisory and supervisee practice melded with participatory principles and operations, it is firmly bedded in specific ethics, values, and norms drawn from both sources. Supervisors and supervisees have been found to have basic knowledge, skills, and attributes of creativity and entrepreneurship germane to participatory management which they succeed in using to the desired effect.

An ecclectic search of the literature on the classic schools of management, like scientific management, behavioral science, and management science, produced material that aided the evaluation of the development of participatory management in supervision. This method of evaluation highlighted how contingency factors emanating from the application of practices from each of the above schools of management has had an effect on the participatory modes of management of supervisors and supervisees.

11.1.3 The ecological dimensions of participatory management

Participation is affected by organisational and environmental conditions as much as it affects the work of those who are associated with it. Organisations have to be conducive for participatory approaches. Internally, organisations have to share in participatory thought and be prepared to create conditions that would facilitate participatory management by supervisors and supervisees, as well as encourage others beyond their professional boundaries to adopt similar management methods. Externally, organisations must inform communities of their

efforts to keep abreast of contemporary trends in the management of direct service. Obstacles, whether personal or structural, should be ironed out so that the implementation of participatory modes of management and indeed the chances of effective change in service delivery can continue unimpeded.

11.1.4 The integration of participatory management concepts, roles, and activities

Without the performance of specific activities, the participatory management concepts, and roles and activities of supervisors and supervisees, would be futile and meaningless. The evaluative study had found that participatory management was operationalised through activities of planning, organising, leading, controlling, educating, and supporting in the use of various appropriate activities. The process of operationalisation was evaluated as the integration of the participatory management philosophy and theory with the practice setting of supervisors and supervisees. The integration was found to be an effective way whereby the participatory roles of supervisors and supervisees was given meaning, and produced results of equity and shared responsibility.

Each of the practical activities are applied according to set processes or steps so that their efficacy within the practical setting could be ensured. To facilitate success, supervisors and supervisees rely on techniques and aids that have the capacity to help them perform maximally without encroaching on the degree of independence and autonomy that each have.

In holistic terms, the integration of participatory concepts and practical activities lends a creditable character to participatory management in supervision. The empirical findings produced good evidence of the acceptability and application of participatory management by those who were included in the study and who were currently involved in supervision.

11.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the above discussion and conclusions in this research, the following recommendations are made.

11.2.1 Theory of supervision and management

It is recommended that:

(1) Research be undertaken by educational institutions to further develop the theoretical link between supervision and management with the view to consolidating current innovations of management approaches in supervision.

(2) Research be continued by educational institutions to further explore the development of participatory management on the basis of contemporary trends in management thought.

(3) Educational institutions should continue their current educational function by :

   (a) Continually adapting the teaching of management theory in line with contemporary trends in management thought.

   (b) Expanding postgraduate courses in management to accommodate state-of-the-art management concepts and practices so that social workers completing such courses are adequately trained.

(c) Offering refresher training courses in supervision at organisational level on a regular basis so that supervisors and supervisees are continually ungraded in their exposure to, and adoption of, contemporary developments in management thought and practice.

(d) Offering specialist training courses in participatory management at postgraduate level, and regularly upgrading course content on the basis of the ongoing development of participatory management.

11.2.2 Participatory management and the practice setting

Generally successful participatory management by supervisors and supervisees is firmly resident in practice. This implies that ideas in the direction of the eventual removal of supervision from practice would be inappropriate, especially as removal would retard the development and growth of the inexperienced worker, or the satisfaction of their supportive needs and those of workers in general. It is recommended that human services organisations be prepared to conduct ongoing action research of supervision, and that, in so doing:

(1) the successes and difficulties encountered by practitioners be monitored and evaluated with the view to increasing the chances of future successes in its continued use, and finding remedies for difficulties.

(2) the supervisors' and supervisees' lack of knowledge skill, and attributes be gauged, and resources be made available to facilitate educative and training processes to address those shortcomings.

(3) organisational conditions including the provision of all aids and facilities be kept conducive for the acceptable implementation of participatory management.

(4) evaluative structures consistent with the types proposed by this research be continually reviewed and adapted so that they remain subscriptive to the principles of participation.

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APPENDICES

QUESTIONNAIRE : PARTICIPATION IN SUPERVISION AND MANAGEMENT

In order to derive as wide and distinctive a perspective as possible from the information provided by supervisors and supervisees, separate questionnaires have been compiled for each group.

Through recent contact with your employer, it was established that you are employed as a SUPERVISOR. The questionnaire below is, therefore, sent to you for completion. Details about your participation in, and views on, supervision and management would be appreciated.

Please read all questions and instructions carefully before you answer.

The numbers appearing on the outside of the blocks in which some answers are to be placed are for coding purposes and must be ignored.

Q U E S T I O N N A I R E 1 (SUPERVISORS)

1. How would you define supervision ?

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2. Please rank, in order of importance, the following list of the objectives of supervision.

To ensure that clients get full entitlement to service		*1*
To ensure that the image of the agency is not damaged		*2*
To ensure the professional development of supervisees		*3*
To ensure that agency policy and procedures are carried out		*4*
To ensure more complete development of supervisees as mature persons		*5*
To ensure that supervisors are aware of stresses and strains on supervisees so that these can be mitigated		*6*
Other (please specify)		*7*

3. Supervisors have **authority** vested in them. Which of the following examples of that authority would apply to you in your supervisory role ?

Expect supervisees to agree with you		1
Recommend disciplinary action		2
Apply pressure to enforce your suggestions if supervisees are unwilling to accept them		3
Recommend promotions		4
Possess knowledge and good judgement in areas in which you have more training and experience than supervisees		5
*In which other ways would you think you exercise your **authority** ?*		6

4(a) If you render **individual supervision,** please indicate how those aspects of it appearing in the following grid apply to the supervisees in your team.

Supervisee	*Frequency of scheduled meetings (times in month)*					*Duration of scheduled meetings*				
No.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*.5hr.*	*.5-1hr.*	*1-2hrs.*	*+2hrs*	
1										*1*
2										*2*
3										*3*
4										*4*
5										*5*
6										*6*
7										*7*
8										*8*
9										*9*
10										*10*
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	

(b) If you render **group supervision,** please indicate how the following aspects apply to you and your team of supervisees.

No. of times in the month

Frequency of sessions	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*Less frequent (specify)*
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*

Duration of sessions	*1*	*2*	*3*
	1hr.	*1-2hrs.*	*2-3hrs*

(c) Please indicate the **proportion of all your working time** that you spend on supervision.

1	2	3	4
-25%	25%-50%	50%-75%	+75%

(d) Please indicate the **average term of supervision** that you render to your supervisees, whether **individual** and/or **group** supervision.

	1	2	3	4	5
	3 months	6 months	1year	2years	indefinitely
individual					
group					
	1	2	3	4	5

(e) If you hold **Informal 'supervisory' discussions,** please state briefly their content and nature.

(f) Do you have any further **comments** on the above ?

---

5. Examples of the **positive aspects and effects** of supervision are listed below. Please rank them in order of prominence.

Support by supervisors is very helpful		1
New trends in practice are noted and evaluated		2
Ideas on relevant aspects of the practice are channeled from the supervisor to the supervisees		3
Feedback is given by the supervisors on the ideas of practice made by supervisees		4
Supervisees' decisions on practice approaches can be clarified		5
Progress made by supervisees can be measured by supervisors		6
Difficult issues relevant to the practice are handled jointly by supervisors and supervisees	/	7
Direction and clarity in the work are offered		8
Uncertainty and lack of confidence in supervisees are reduced		9
Supervisees are empowered to work towards consultation through increased competency training and professional growth		10

6. Examples of the common **limitations** of supervision are listed below. Please rank them in order of prominence as viewed by you.

Supervisors do not distinguish or fulfil their supportive, administrative, and educative roles with enough clarity		*1*
Supervisors are more concerned with issues of themselves than with those of their supervisees, eg their need for recognition rather than the learning needs of supervisees		*2*
Supervisors do not have adequate knowledge and practical know-how appropriate to supervision and social work practice		*3*
Supervision has a "cinderella" image; little is done to improve the quality of work through the reduction of supervision and the increase of self-regulating, managerial modes of practice		*4*
Supervision is interminable, and thereby inclined to create dependency in supervisees		*5*
Supervisors are given a great deal of power; they prefer a didactic approach in role functioning, avoiding group discussions and group decision-making		*6*
Supervisors do not know the recipient communities of the agency, and are, therefore, unaware of the changes and events that take place within communities		*7*

7. What is your **educational background** ? Please indicate each relevant qualification as it applies to you.

3-year College diploma/certificate (social work)		*1*
3-year University diploma/degree (social work)		*2*
4-year University diploma/degree (social work)		*3*
Honours degree in social work		*4*
Advanced diploma in social work		*5*
Master's degree in social work		*6*
Doctoral degree		*7*
Degree in subject other than social work		*8*
Formal qualification in supervision		*9*
Other:		*10*

Current study:

---

8. What **experience** do you have as a supervisor ? Please enter the **number of years** in the relevant category.

	years	
*Supervisor in **all** agencies*		*1*
*Supervisor in **current** agency*		*2*

9. The following **skills** are regarded as essential to supervisors. Please indicate to what extent you apply them in the performance of your supervisory role.

	1	*2*	*3*	*4*
	Never	*Seldom*	*Frequently*	*All of the time*
Conceptual skill				
view the agency as a whole				
coordinate agency's interests and its social work activities				
understand the interrelatedness of supervisees' work and the community's interests				
understand the social work process				
understand the supervisory process				
Human skill				
work with colleagues				
work with, understand, and motivate supervisees				
maintain professional relationships				
Technical skill				
use procedures, supervisory techniques and knowledge of practice				
devise systems to streamline procedures				
use administrative aids, eg charts, schedules, rosters				

10. Please indicate which of the following **attributes** you would consider as essential to supervisors.

Have thorough, sound knowledge of relevant areas, such as agency resources, legislation, and social work theory and practice		1
Are very supportive of supervisees		2
Are able to set a high standard of performance both for themselves and for supervisees		3
Able to give critical feedback on supervisees' work as well as able to receive critical feedback on own performance		4
Know how to use supervision in order to maximise learning by supervisees		5
Can set objectives with supervisees		6
Are able to give instructions clearly and without apology		7
Stimulate new thinking and practice by encouraging supervisees to experiment with different approaches		8
Advocate for their supervisees in negotiation with higher management, on issues that impact on, or are affected by, their performance		9

11. Which of the following **ethical considerations** would you regard as important in the supervisor-supervisee relationship ?

Showing courtesy, respect, and fairness to each other		1
Helping each other in appropriate ways		2
Resolving mutual criticism of differences		3
Defending each other against unfair criticism by others		4
Mutually exchanging knowledge and experience		5
Exercising openness in all interactions		6
Respecting shared confidences		7

12. Please indicate whether or not you are allowed to **innovate** in the exercise of your job.

	1	2
	Yes	*No*

If "yes", which of the following are you allowed to do ?

Use new administrative styles		1
Engage external sources to resolve conflict		2
Allow supervisees opportunity for self-management of their work		3
Link supervisees with outside sources for attention to learning needs		4
Other (please specify) :		5

13. Please indicate the extent to which you use **delegation** as a supervisory function.

1	2	3
insignificantly	*fairly significantly*	*substantially*

Indicate which of the following you **delegate** to supervisees.

Chairing of group meetings		1
Resolving of peer conflict among supervisees		2
Drawing up of agenda for group discussions		3
Monitoring of use of agency vehicles		4
Controlling use of general office facilities		5
Organising of staff development programmes		6
Planning of office routine		7
Completion of practical tasks, eg ordering of office stationery		8

14. Please indicate in the appopriate column to what degree the following applies to your **employing agency.**

	1	2	3
	Inadequate	*Adequate*	*Excessive*
Working conditions			
consensual decision-making			
collaborative action			
departmentalisation			
intra-departmental contact			
rewarding career opportunities			
appropriate autonomy			
Value system			
belief in achievement			
recognition of professionals			
belief in innovation			
recognition of social needs			
Staff structure			
specialists for specialist work			
communication platforms			
Control			
administrative forms			
measurement of performance			
individual monitoring			
group monitoring			

15. Please indicate in the appropriate columns to what extent you are able to fulfil the following functions as a supervisor.

	1 Never	2 Seldom	3 Frequently	4 All of the time
Planning				
goal-setting				
setting of objectives				
assessing work situation				
choosing work aids				
identifying barriers and limitations				
developing work plans and strategy				
using techniques in planning, eg schedules, charts (specify) :				
Organising				
task setting				
allocating work				
establishing links between supervisees				
coordinating work of the team				
monitoring work of the team				
orientating recruits				
managing conflict				
resolving conflict				
Leading				
clarifying vision and mission				
clarifying contingency factors				
establishing intra-team relations				
setting path for goal attainment				
motivating supervisees				
making decisions and solving appropriate problems				
allowing self-leading				
Controlling				
setting criteria for management structures				
setting output-outcome norms				
designing data gathering mechanisms				
measuring performance and results				
correcting outcome discrepancies				
Educating				
transmitting knowledge				
transmitting values				

transmitting skills	1 Never	2 Seldom	3 Frequently	4 All of the time
Supporting facilitating personal growth				
sustaining morale				
increasing sense of worth				
encouraging sense of security				
encouraging sense of belonging				

16. How would you define **management** ?

---

17. The following are referred to in question 15 above. Which of these would you regard as **management functions** ? Please indicate.

Planning		1
Organising		2
Leading		3
Controlling		4
Educating		5
Supporting		6

18. Which of the following descriptions would you regard as indicative of your **management style** ?

Thoughtful attention to needs of supervisees		1
Minimum effort to get required work done		2
Balance of the necessity to get work done with maintaining the morale of supervisees at a satisfactory level		3
Team management approach, by encouraging supervisees to have trust and respect for each other		4
Arrangement of work conditions by which human elements interfere minimally		5

19. Which of the following **negative responses** do you experience with your supervisees in the execution of your managerial functions ?

Disregard of direction offered in their work		1
Disregard of training offered		2
Poor coordination of team		3
Opposition to evaluation of work		4
Opposition to control function of supervisor		5
Refusal to be led by supervisor		6

Which of the following would you regard as **causes** of the above ?

Poor overall planning		1
Lack of organisation		2
Poor application of leadership role		3
Inadequate/inappropriate control system		4
Lack of appropriate knowledge and training		5
Other:		6

20. Do you have any knowledge of **participatory management** as a management type used by supervisors and their supervisees ?

Yes		1
No		2

If "yes", how would you define it ?

---

21. Thank you very much for your participation in the survey. Are there any **general comments** that you wish to make ?

QUESTIONNAIRE : PARTICIPATION IN SUPERVISION AND MANAGEMENT

In order to derive as wide and distinctive a perspective as possible from the information provided by **supervisors** and **supervisees**, **separate** questionnaires have been compiled for each group.

Through recent contact with your employer, it was established that you are employed as a **SOCIAL WORKER**. The questionnaire below is, therefore, sent to you for completion. Details about your participation in, and views on, **supervision** and **management** would be appreciated.

Please read all questions and instructions carefully before you answer.

The numbers appearing on the outside of the blocks in which some answers are to be placed are for coding purposes and must be ignored.

Q U E S T I O N N A I R E 2 (SOCIAL WORKERS)

1. How would you define **supervision** ?

---

2. Please rank, in order of importance, the following list of the **objectives of supervision.**

To ensure that clients get full entitlement to service		*1*
To ensure that the image of the agency is not damaged		*2*
To ensure the professional development of supervisees		*3*
To ensure that agency policy and procedures are carried out		*4*
To ensure more complete development of supervisees as mature persons		*5*
To ensure that supervisors are aware of stresses and strains on supervisees so that these can be mitigated		*6*
Other (please specify)		*7*

3. Supervisors have **authority** vested in them. Which of the following examples of that authority would apply to your supervisor ?

Expect supervisees to agree with him/her		*1*
Recommend disciplinary action		*2*
Apply pressure to enforce his/her suggestions if supervisees are unwilling to accept them		*3*
Recommend promotions		*4*
Possess knowledge and good judgement in areas in which he/she has more training and experience than supervisees		*5*
*Exercise **authority** in other ways: (specify)*		*6*

4(a) If you receive **individual supervision,** please indicate how those aspects of it appearing below apply to you.

No. of times in the month

Frequency of scheduled meetings	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*Less frequent (specify)*
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*

Duration of scheduled meetings	*-.5hr*	*-.5hr-1hr*	*1hr-1.5hr*	*1.5hr-2hrs*	*+2hrs*
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*

(b) If you and your peers receive **group supervision,** please indicate how those aspects of it appearing below apply to you as a group.

No. of times in the month

Frequency of sessions	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*Less frequent (specify)*
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*

	1	*2*	*3*
Duration of sessions	*1hr.*	*1-2hrs.*	*2-3hrs*

(c) Please indicate the **proportion of all your working time** that you spend on supervision.

1	2	3	4
-25%	25%-50%	50%-75%	+75%

(d) Please indicate the **average term of supervision** that you receive as a supervisee, whether **individual** and/or **group** supervision.

	1	2	3	4	5
	3 months	6 months	1year	2years	indefinitely
individual					
group					
	1	2	3	4	5

(e) If you hold **Informal 'supervisory' discussions,** please state briefly their content and nature.

(f) Do you have any further **comments** on the above ?

---

5. Examples of the **positive aspects and effects** of supervision are listed below. Please rank them in order of prominence.

Support by supervisors is very helpful		1
New trends in practice are noted and evaluated		2
Ideas on relevant aspects of the practice are channeled from the supervisor to the supervisees		3
Feedback is given by the supervisors on the ideas of practice made by supervisees		4
Supervisees' decisions on practice approaches can be clarified		5
Progress made by supervisees can be measured by supervisors		6
Difficult issues relevant to the practice are handled jointly by supervisors and supervisees		7
Direction and clarity in the work are offered		8
Uncertainty and lack of confidence in supervisees are reduced		9
Supervisees are empowered to work towards consultation through increased competency training and professional growth		10

6. Examples of the common limitations of supervision are listed below. Please rank them in order of prominence as viewed by you.

Supervisors do not distinguish or fulfil their supportive, administrative, and educative roles with enough clarity		*1*
Supervisors are more concerned with issues of themselves than with those of their supervisees, eg their need for recognition rather than the learning needs of supervisees		*2*
Supervisors do not have adequate knowledge and practical know-how appropriate to supervision and social work practice		*3*
Supervision has a "cinderalla" image; little is done to improve the quality of work through the reduction of supervision and the increase of self-regulating, managerial modes of practice		*4*
Supervision is interminable, and thereby inclined to create dependency in supervisees		*5*
Supervisors are given a great deal of power; they prefer a didactic approach in role functioning, avoiding group discussions and group decision-making		*6*
Supervisors do not know the recipient communities of the agency, and are, therefore, unaware of the changes and events that take place within communities		*7*

7. What is your **educational background** ? Please indicate each relevant qualification as it applies to you.

3-year College diploma/certificate (social work)		*1*
3-year University diploma/degree (social work)		*2*
4-year University diploma/degree (social work)		*3*
Honours degree in social work		*4*
Advanced diploma in social work		*5*
Master's degree in social work		*6*
Doctoral degree		*7*
Degree in subject other than social work		*8*
Formal qualification in supervision		*9*
Other:		*10*

Current study:

---

8. What **experience** do you have as a social worker ? Please enter the **number of years** in the relevant category.

	years	
in all agencies		*1*
in current agency		*2*

9. The following **skills** are regarded as essential to supervisors. Please indicate to what extent your supervisor applies them in the performance of his/her supervisory role.

	1	*2*	*3*	*4*
	Never	*Seldom*	*Frequently*	*All of the time*
Conceptual skill				
view the agency as a whole				
coordinate agency's interests and its social work activities				
understand the interrelatedness of supervisees' work and the community's interests				
understand the social work process				
understand the supervisory process				
Human skill				
work with colleagues				
work with, understand, and motivate supervisees				
maintain professional relationships				
Technical skill				
use procedures, supervisory techniques and knowledge of practice				
devise systems to streamline procedures				
use administrative aids, eg charts, schedules, rosters				

10. Please indicate which of the following **attributes** you would consider as essential to supervisors.

Have thorough, sound knowledge of relevant areas, such as agency resources, legislation, and social work theory and practice		*1*
Are very supportive of supervisees		*2*
Are able to set a high standard of performance both for themselves and for supervisees		*3*
Able to give critical feedback on supervisees' work as well as able to receive critical feedback on own performance		*4*
Know how to use supervision in order to maximise learning by supervisees		*5*
Can set objectives with supervisees		*6*
Are able to give instructions clearly and without apology		*7*
Stimulate new thinking and practice by encouraging supervisees to experiment with different approaches		*8*
Advocate for their supervisees in negotiation with higher management, on issues that impact on, or are affected by, their performance		*9*

11. Which of the following **ethical considerations** would you regard as important in the supervisor-supervisee relationship ?

Showing courtesy, respect, and fairness to each other		*1*
Helping each other in appropriate ways		*2*
Resolving mutual criticism of differences		*3*
Defending each other against unfair criticism by others		*4*
Mutually exchanging knowledge and experience		*5*
Exercising openness in all interactions		*6*
Respecting shared confidences		*7*

12. Please indicate whether or not you are allowed to **innovate** in the exercise of your job.

1	*2*
Yes	*No*

If "yes", which of the following are you allowed to do ?

Use new administrative styles		*1*
Engage external sources to resolve conflict		*2*
Make use of opportunity for self-management of your work		*3*
Engage the help of external sources for attention to learning needs		*4*
Other (please specify) :		*5*

13. Please indicate the extent to which professional tasks are delegated to you by your supervisor.

1	2	3
insignificantly	*fairly significantly*	*substantially*

Indicate which of the following are at times **delegated** to you.

Chairing of group meetings		1
Resolving of peer conflict among supervisees		2
Drawing up of agenda for group discussions		3
Monitoring of use of agency vehicles		4
Controlling use of general office facilities		5
Organising of staff development programmes		6
Planning of office routine		7
Completion of practical tasks, eg ordering of office stationery		8

14. Please indicate in the appopriate column to what degree the following applies to your **employing agency.**

	1	2	3
	Inadequate	*Adequate*	*Excessive*
Working conditions			
consensual decision-making			
collaborative action			
departmentalisation			
intra-departmental contact			
rewarding career opportunities			
appropriate autonomy			
Value system			
belief in achievement			
recognition of professionals			
belief in innovation			
recognition of social needs			
Staff structure			
specialists for specialist work			
communication platforms			
Control			
administrative forms			
measurement of performance			
individual monitoring			
group monitoring			

15. Please indicate in the appropriate columns to what extent your supervisor fulfils the following functions.

	1 Never	2 Seldom	3 Frequently	4 All of the time
Planning				
goal-setting				
setting of objectives				
assessing work situation				
choosing work aids				
identifying barriers and limitations				
developing work plans and strategy				
using techniques in planning, eg schedules, charts (specify) :				
Organising				
task setting				
allocating work				
establishing links between supervisees				
coordinating work of the team				
monitoring work of the team				
orientating recruits				
managing conflict				
resolving conflict				
Leading				
clarifying vision and mission				
clarifying contingency factors				
establishing intra-team relations				
setting path for goal attainment				
motivating supervisees				
making decisions and solving appropriate problems				
allowing self-leading				
Controlling				
setting criteria for management structures				
setting output-outcome norms				
designing data gathering mechanisms				
measuring performance and results				
correcting outcome discrepancies				
Educating				
transmitting knowledge				
transmitting values				

transmitting skills	1 Never	2 Seldom	3 Frequently	4 All of the time
Supporting facilitating personal growth				
sustaining morale				
increasing sense of worth				
encouraging sense of security				
encouraging sense of belonging				

16. How would you define **management** ?

---

17. The following are referred to in question 15 above. Which of these would you regard as **management functions** ? Please indicate.

Planning		1
Organising		2
Leading		3
Controlling		4
Educating		5
Supporting		6

18. Which of the following descriptions would you regard as indicative of your **management style** ?

Thoughtful attention to needs of clients		1
Minimum effort to get required work done		2
Balance of the necessity to get work done with maintaining your own morale at a satisfactory level		3
A "team-care" approach, by encouraging peers in your team to trust and respect each other		4
Arrangement of work conditions by which human elements interfere minimally		5

19. Which of the following **difficulties** do you experience in the practical execution of your managerial functions ?

Targets within time-frames are not reached		*1*
Peers respond poorly to training offered		*2*
Workload activities are too many to coordinate		*3*
Evaluation of own work inadequate		*4*
Own control of work is fragmented and inadequate		*5*
High levels of insecurity and poor morale remain despite supportive aid		*6*

Which of the following would you regard as **causes** of the above ?

Poor overall planning		*1*
Lack of organisation		*2*
Poor application of leadership role		*3*
Inadequate/inappropriate control system		*4*
Lack of appropriate knowledge and training		*5*
Other:		*6*

20. Do you have any knowledge of **participatory management** as a management type used by supervisors and their supervisees ?

Yes		*1*
No		*2*

If "yes", how would you define it ?

---

21. Thank you very much for your participation in the survey. Are there any **general comments** that you wish to make ?

APPENDIX C

PROJECT NO..... NAME OF PROJECT: ..... LOCALITY:.....

GENERAL PROBLEM: .....

SPECIFIC PROBLEM: .....

PROFILE OF COMMUNITY (DEMOGRAPHIC, SOCIAL, ECONOMIC)

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

PREVIOUS EFFORTS

.....

.....

.....

ANTICIPATED PARTICIPATION OF COMMUNITY (INCLUDING VOLUNTEERS)

.....

.....

.....

ANTICIPATED SUPPORT OF OTHER ORGANISATIONS

.....

.....

TARGET POPULATION (AGE GROUP AND AGE RANGE) .....

GOAL:

TO PROMOTE AND PARTICIPATE IN THE CREATION OF OPTIMAL ENVIRONMENTAL CONDITIONS FOR PROVISION OF BASIC NEEDS	
TO GENERATE OPTIMAL PERSONAL AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT AND DEVELOPMENT	
TO PROMOTE AND ASSIST IN CREATING OPTIMAL HEALTH	
TO CREATE OPPORTUNITY FOR ADEQUATE KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS	
TO PROMOTE ADEQUATE INCOME AND ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY	
TO ESTABLISH ADEQUATELY ORGANISED SOCIAL INSTRUMENTALITIES FOR SOCIAL CHANGE	

OBJECTIVES

DESCRIPTION	SHORT-RANGE (SEVERAL MONTHS)			MEDIUM-RANGE (2 YEAR)			LONG-RANGE (5 YEARS)		
	CASE WORK	GROUP WORK	COMMUNITY WORK						
METHODS									
SERVICES									
TASKS									

	SHORT-RANGE (SEVERAL MONTHS)			MEDIUM-RANGE (2 YEARS)			LONG-RANGE (5 YEARS)		
PLACE									
TIME AND DURATION									
MANPOWER									
JOB DESCRIPTION			(see PAGE 4)						
ESTIMATED OVERALL EXPENDITURE AND INCOME			(see PAGES 5 + 6)						
FACILITIES AND EQUIPMENT									
REPLENISHABLE MATERIALS									
ACCOUNTABILITY									
MANAGEMENT, MONITOR & CONTROL									
EVALUATION - place - frequency - criteria									

PROGRAMME JOB - DESCRIPTIONS

Hours of Work: - No. of hours - Period										
RESPONSIBLE TO										
Responsibilities: - No. of cases - No. of groups - No. of sub-projects - No. of interviews - No. of group sessions - No. of meetings with community										
Meetings: - Weekly staff-training - Monthly staff - Annual general - Inter-departmental - With community groups - Seminars - Other										
Nature of recording (accountability)										
Consultation/Supervision: (weekly, monthly, fortnightly, quarterly, nil)										
Work appraisal & project evaluation (quarterly/½ yearly/ annually)										
Other (specify)										

ESTIMATED FUNCTIONAL INCOME

	1ST YEAR	2ND YEAR	3RD YEAR	4TH YEAR	5TH YEAR	TOT.
1. DEPARTMENTAL FUNDS						
2. EXTRA-DEPARTMENTAL FUNDS						
(a) Projects						
(b) Donations						
(c)						
(d)						

ESTIMATED FUNCTIONAL EXPENDITURE

	1ST YEAR	2ND YEAR	3RD YEAR	4TH YEAR	5TH YEAR	TOTAL
1. STAFF EXPENDITURE						
(i) Salaries						
(ii) Wages						
(iii) Bonuses						
(iv) Honorariums						
(v) Contributions						
(vi) Training						
2. TRANSPORT AND OFFICE EXPENDITURE						
(i) Transport - fuel, services						
(ii) Subsistence & travel exp.						
(iii) Advertisements						
(iv) Telephone & Postage						
(v) Stationery & Printing						
(vi) Books & Periodicals						
(vii) Insurances (buildings, equipment, vehicles)						
3. LAND AND BUILDINGS						
(i) Rent						
(ii) Maintenance						
(iii) Cost (all inclusive)						
(iv) Repairs						
(v) Utility costs (eg. electricity, water)						
4. PROFESSIONAL AND SPECIAL SERVICES						
(i) Hiring						
(ii) Special events						
(iii) Research						
(iv) Public Relations						
(v) Other						
5. EQUIPMENT AND VEHICLES						
(i) AUDIO-VISUALS - purchases						
- replacements						
(ii) VEHICLES - Purchases						
- replacements						
6. OTHER						
TOTAL						

NOTES

1. There is a current calculated range of hourly rate of pay for all staff (full-time and part-time). An average of R _____ per hr is taken for all participants.

2. To cover C.O.L. increase, inflation rates, and projected added demands on all materials and manpower over a 5 year period, an increase of 15% in expenditure is attached from year to year.

3. Some costs shown here represent a percentage of overall costs borne by... .... as a matter of course.

4. This project:-

does not generate income		
generates income to cover costs	wholly	
	partly	

APPENDIX D

PROCEDURES IN ORGANISING NEW COMMUNITY SERVICES

Identifying the need for service/project

A clear definition and articulation of the concrete and viable needs of our recipient community must always be made before any service programme or projects are started.

This important preparatory step will ensure:

(a) Community support for the service

(b) The service can be planned for long-term implementation in an effective and efficient way

Clear objectives may then be set thus ensuring success.

Identifying unmet needs in the community is, however, a difficult, often complex task that necessitates several steps. The concept of "need" itself at times defies adequate definition. What is perceived as a need by one group may not be so considered by another. Nevertheless, there are steps whereby we can get a quick orientation of the needs of the various geographic sections into which our area of operation has been subdivided.

STEP 1

Examine sources of information that are "suggestive" of need, eg. census, data, health surveys. The information gained would be more statistical and descriptive. Housing Estate Offices, clinics, and other institutions may also be able to offer information such as:-

a) No of residents/inhabitants in the area

b) age distribution

c) level of education

d) level of income

e) housing patterns

f) health conditions

g) living conditions

h) and other relevant information

2/....

Pre-action control guide for new services

STEP 2

Identify the **various agencies** in the area that serve the community of recipients. This involves finding out what type of services they offer and for whom. Your strategy could include personal interviews, reading annual reports, and the like.

STEP 3

Explore with the **staff of the agencies** that are current or potential providers of services to the target population, the **concerns and problems** they have identified regarding the gaps in, or type of services.

STEP 4

Meet and discuss with community groups their needs, wants, interests, and preferences.

STEP 5

Conduct a "needs" survey in your area of focus, by using the questionnaire or survey form handed to you. The questions asked are designed to gain information directly or indirectly from individuals in the community, about how **they** see their unmet needs and problems. This excercise can be called a so-called "social indicators type" survey.

Once all the information is in, we will then be able to analyse it, and plan the feasibility of projects/seminars decided upon. Please note that the individuals you interview will not necessarily be our target population, that is, those whom we wish to help. In the process of interviewing, however, we will be doing something quite important - making:

(a) the community aware of the needs of the target population

(b) community leaders/representatives interested in working together on needs.

(c) it easier for all to start acting as a team.

STEP 6

Decide and devise a plan of **actual** projects and/or services for each geographic area, based on our findings. This step should involve ourselves, and **representatives of the recipient community.**

The emphasis must always be on:

(a) prioritising the needs

(b) setting objectives to meet those needs

(c) specifying the age group (target group)

(d) considering alternative projects/services

(e) completing a feasibility study (e.g. costs, manpower, facilities, support by others, venues, etc.)

Only after these 6 steps have been taken can a particular project or new service be implemented with success.

NB Other subsequent steps in our community services approach are discussed in separate text. For the purposes of our immediate task of simple research, the 6 steps given here are sufficient for discussion in a workshop.

Multi-purpose control sheet for general tasks

APPENDIX E

	ACTION PLANNED	ACTION TAKEN
MON		
TUES		
WED		
THU		
FRI		

Multi-purpose control sheet for community work

APPENDIX F

COMMUNITY WORK DAILY PROCESS REPORT

DATES: ..... REPORT NO:.....

TYPE OF ACTIVITY:

WHERE	DISCUSSION OR INTERVIEW WITH WHOM	HOW	OBSERVATION (WHAT)	MEETING (TYPE)	CONSUL-TATION	OTHER
1.						
2.						
3.						
4.						
5.						
6.						
7.						
8.						

MATTERS DISCUSSED/ DETAIL OF OBSERVATION (No's refer to above numbering)

EVALUATIVE REMARKS

SHORT TERM GOALS

SOCIAL WORKER INITIALS: _____

Multi-purpose control guide for community work

APPENDIX G

MONTHLY SUMMARY AND PROGRESS REPORT

MONTH: .....

COMMUNITY WORKER: .....

PROJECT: .....

LOCALITY: .....

DESCRIPTIVE/STATISTICAL DETAIL:

DESCRIPTION — STATISTICAL DETAIL

	INTERVIEWS	MEETINGS	CONSULTATION	REPORTS PROCESS	REPORTS SUMM
Contact with:					
Family Members					
Other Social Workers					
Resource Persons					
Staff members					
Man. Comm. Members					
State Departments					
Housing Managers					
P/Teachers Assoc. Members					
Civic Action groups					
Supervisor					
Other Activity					
Administration					
Research					
Planning					
"Other"					
TOTALS:					

1. **INTRODUCTION:**

.....

.....

.....

Multi-purpose control guide for community work

2. MAIN TACTICS AND TECHNIQUES USED:

3. CURRENT STATUS OF PROJECT:

4. GENERAL ANALYSIS:

(a) Evaluation of new knowledge gained

(b) Evaluation of process of development/progress
goal attainment

Growth of Individuals

Multi-purpose control guide for community work

Prognosis:

_____

_____

_____

(c) EVALUATION OF COMMUNITY WORKER'S PERSONAL GROWTH:
(Quality of worker/community relationship, ups and downs, etc.)

_____

_____

_____

5. FUTURE PLANS/GOALS:

(a) New: _____

_____

_____

(b) Modified: _____

_____

_____

6. RECOMMENDATIONS:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

DATE WRITTEN: _____

_____

Community Worker

SB/cb

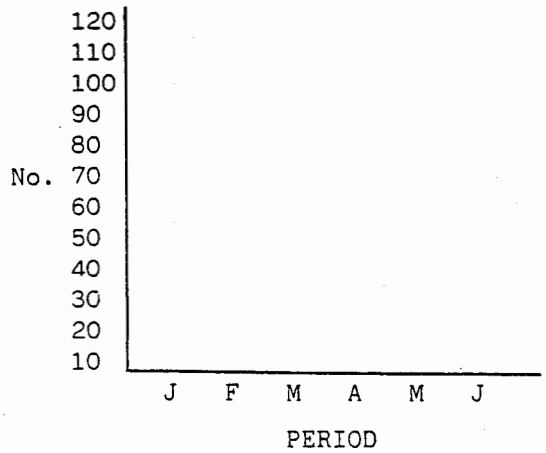
Multi-purpose control sheet for quantification of supervisee performance

APPENDIX H

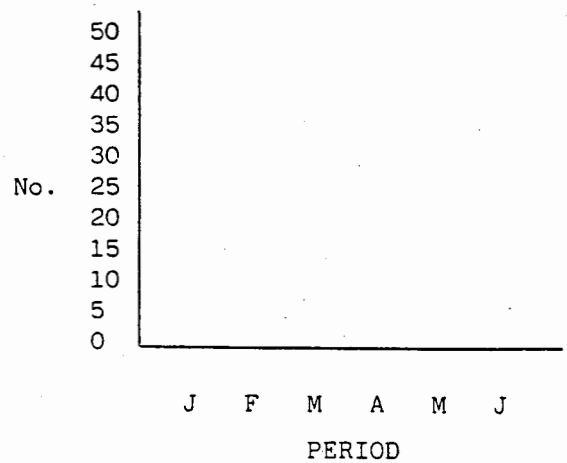
WORKER : _____

6 – MONTHLY STATISTICS

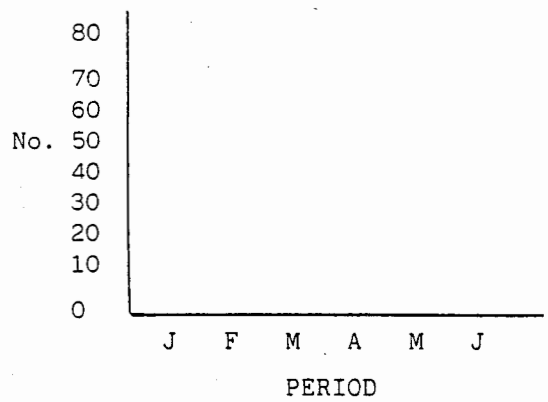
OFFICE/TELEPHONE INTERVIEWS



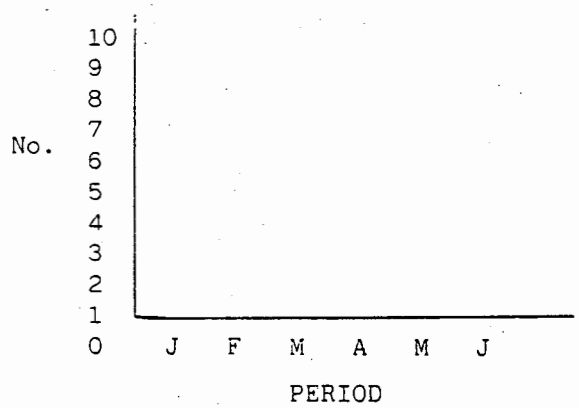
HOME VISIT INTERVIEWS



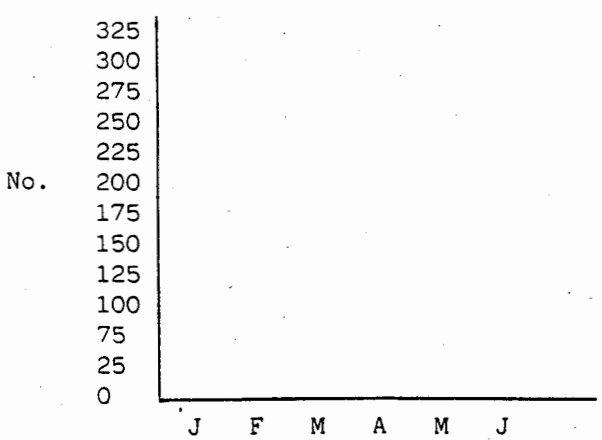
CASELOAD



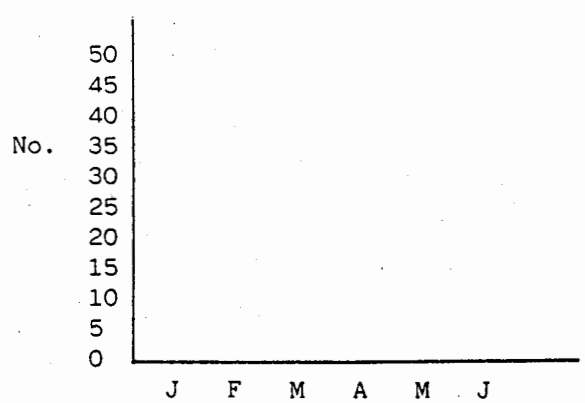
GROUPWORK SESSIONS



TOTAL CASEWORK CONTACTS



COMMUNITY WORK CONTACTS



Multi-purpose control sheet for quantification of absenteeism and extra-time

APPENDIX I

NAME:

EMPLOYMENT COMMENCEMENT DATE:

OFFICE OF STATION:

RECORD OF LEAVE TAKEN, TIME-OFF, AND EXTRA-TIME

Date(s)	No. of days	TYPE OF LEAVE					TIME-OFF		EXTRA HOURS WORKED		Comments
		Norm Ann.	Acc. Ann.	Sick	Special	Unpaid	Time	No. of hours	Time	No. of hours	

Checklist for assisting evaluation of participatory management in the work situation

APPENDIX J

Directions: the purpose of this exercise is to help you diagnose the use of PM in your present job by analising major functions performed by your team as they relate to your job. The far left hand column lists common functions found in a job. The headings across the top specify areas in which the authority for each function lies. Using a scale from zero to 2, indicate in each square where the authority for the function currently rests. A zero indicates no authority, a 2 indicates maximum authority. Then, for each function indicate where the authority should exist. Totaling the points at the end should give you an idea of the discrepancy between what is and what should be. If you feel that a function does not apply to your job, leave those boxes blank. Please note that team leaders would fill in only columns 1 and 3 below, whereas other members would fill in all 3 whenever relevant.

	1		2		3	
	YOU		YOUR TEAM LEADER		OTHER TEAM MEMBERS	
FUNCTION	NOW DO	SHOULD DO	NOW DO	SHOULD DO	NOW DO	SHOULD DO
Determining Unit's goals						
Policy decision making						
determining team leaders goals						
Describing job of team leader						
Describing job of other team members						
Describing own job						
Scheduling of team leader's work						
Scheduling of other team member's work						
Scheduling of own work						
Ensuring effective communication						
Routine managerial problem solving						
Complex managerial problem solving						

Checklist for assisting evaluation of participatory management in the work situation

	1	2	3
Participating in complex social work problem solving			
Resolving client complaints			
Quality controlling			
Handling grievances of team leader			
Handling grievances of other team members			
Handling own grievances			
Disciplining of all team members			
Evaluating unit's performance			
Evaluating performance of team leader			
Evaluating performance of all other team members			
TOTAL			

GENERAL COMMENTS

NAME: _____

DATE: _____